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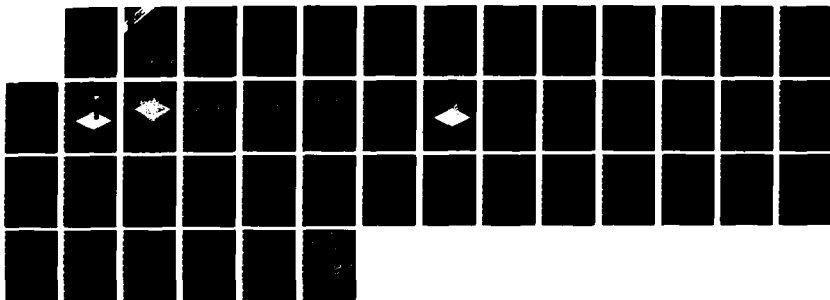
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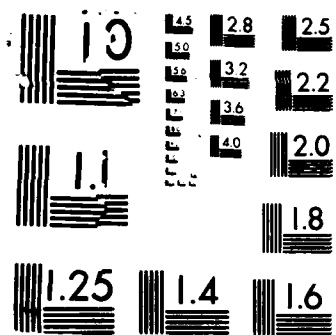
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# Air Vehicle Detection by Using an Ensemble of Moving-Picture Images

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## **ADMINISTRATIVE INFORMATION**

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## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

### PROBLEM

Examine three-dimensional matched filtering and show how it can be applied to accomplish target detection over sequences of observed scenes, which is an important extension of classical two-dimensional image processing. Provide examples to demonstrate and validate these results.

### RESULTS

Three-dimensional filtering techniques can be easily modified to act as a space-shift, time-delay-and-integrate matched-filtering technique. Computer simulations verified the validity of this modification. The results demonstrate signal-to-noise ratio gains asymptotically growing by the filter integration time over those normally obtained by two-dimensional matched filtering of the individual frames in a sequence. The specific form of the output is ideally suited for moving-target indicator (MTI) applications, or can be used in conjunction with some other target-speed and detection-localizing algorithm.

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## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

A pressing problem in remote sensing is the detection of weak targets in highly spatially structured optical imagery. Such imagery can be generated by a scanning point detector or linear photodiode array, or by a staring mosaic photodiode array. Reviews of current image-processing trends have illustrated their utility for enhancing the inherent information content found in remotely sensed multispectral imagery [1-6]. Most of these techniques are generally suitable for feature extraction and or pattern-recognition applications, and as a consequence are not always helpful in the detection of small, weak targets. Other signal-processing techniques are used to provide target detection and localization [7].

When the target is moving with respect to the background, several signal-detection methods can be applied to the image pixel data to reduce the inherent background clutter in the imagery and enhance target detectability [7-12]. For example, the accepted approach for localizing targets in staring mosaic data sequences is to frequently bandpass the imagery by using either an analog or digital filter; e.g., frame-to-frame subtraction or a third-order transversal filter [7-9]. These techniques are known to produce excellent results provided the target is relatively strong. Otherwise, they must be used in concert with other signal-enhancing methods [7, 10-12].

Mohanty has shown that potential track trajectories of a weak point target can be assembled through exhaustive search of all possible trajectories in a given frame sequence [10]. Unfortunately, for a staring mosaic array of reasonable size, the number of possible trajectories to be searched can be large; hence it is an unattractive approach to target detection. Barniv used dynamic programming to reduce this approach to a more reasonable level through specific knowledge of potential speed windows and target shape [11].

A more robust track localization technique has been developed by Reed, Gagliardi, and Shao for detecting weak, moving targets in background clutter by using three-dimensional (3-D) matched filtering [12]. This method performs moving-target-signature matched filtering in the Fourier domain, with proper signal phasing automatically applied in order to "coherently" sum the target energy and reduce background noise. The result is a set of matched-filter peaks indicating detected pieces of track. Its strengths lie in its ability to operate on several potential target tracks simultaneously (independent of their respective space-time origins) and to bring out partial as well as full tracks with enhanced signal-to-noise ratios often substantially in excess of what normally would be obtained from spatially filtering each individual frame separately. Its weakness is that this method requires knowledge of the moving target's temporal signature, an aspect not always known *a priori*. This apparent drawback can be compensated for, but at the cost of increasing the number of filter banks significantly to accommodate all possible temporal signature variations of each prospective target of interest.

To eliminate this last cost impact, the same filtering approach can be reconfigured as an ensemble moving-picture processor. Its specific form is of a space-shift and time-delay-and-integrate matched filter, and it retains much of the processing strength described above. However, its real impact is to reduce the number of filter banks to the level necessary for basic target velocity discrimination, and this can be reduced further by target parameter estimation by means of data fusion.\*

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\*Kendall, W. B., Space Computer Corporation, private communication.

The intent of this report is to further examine three-dimensional matched filtering and to show how it can be applied to accomplish target detection over sequences of observed scenes, which is an important extension of classical two-dimensional image processing. Examples are given to demonstrate and validate these results.

## 2.0 ENSEMBLE MOVING-PICTURE PROCESSING

Reed, et al. [12], have shown that the optimum three-dimensional matched filter for a moving target is obtained by maximizing the received signal-to-noise ratio through linear filtering. Its specific form is

$$H(\underline{k};\omega) = \frac{A^*(\omega + \underline{k} \cdot \underline{v}) S_0(\underline{k})}{\Phi_0(\underline{k};\omega) G(\underline{k})} \quad (1)$$

where

$$A(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} a(t) \exp \{-i\omega t\} dt \quad (2)$$

$$S_0(\underline{k}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s_0(\underline{r}) \exp \{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r}\} d^2r \quad (3)$$

$$\Phi_0(\underline{k};\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \phi_0(\underline{r};t) \exp \{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - i\omega t\} d^2r dt \quad (4)$$

and

$$G(\underline{k}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(\underline{r})|^2 \exp \{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r}\} d^2r \quad (5)$$

where the authors have assumed a moving target of spatial profile  $s_0(\underline{r})$  and temporal intensity function  $a(t)$  traversing a certain portion of terrain with velocity  $\underline{v}$ . This terrain is assumed to possess colored Gaussian intensity statistics with autocorrelation  $\phi_0(\underline{r};t)$ . The entire scenario is imaged in an optical system with point-spread function  $|h(\underline{r})|^2$  onto a large high-density, high-speed photodiode array. The appendix contains a detailed derivation of the optimum filter  $H(\underline{k};\omega)$ . The resulting data sequence is assumed after sampling to be quasi-stationary in intensity, space, and time, and forms a continuous "moving picture," which will be image processed to yield the existence of the moving target. On the assumption that the signal is additive to the noise, the two possible output sequences are

$$y(\underline{r};t) = n_0(\underline{r};t) \quad (6a)$$

and

$$y(\underline{r};t) = n_0(\underline{r};t) + s(\underline{r};t) \quad (6b)$$

with the particular choice depending on whether the target is absent or present, respectively. Here  $n_0(\underline{r};t)$  and  $s(\underline{r};t)$  are the received background and target intensity distributions, respectively (see appendix A).

In general, the exact form of the target temporal intensity function  $a(t)$  is not known beforehand. This implies that the size of the matched-filter bank will be quite large, since it must encompass all possible targets, shapes, velocity windows, track orientations, and, now, intensity functions. Such additional complexity would generally make this approach undesirable. However, if the above three-dimensional matched-filter approach is restructured as a space-shift and time-delay-and-integrate matched filter, significant target signal-to-noise ratio gains are still achievable, and with reduced processing complexity. In this technique,  $a(t)$  is replaced as the temporal intensity variation by a processing window function for simultaneously interacting the various frame groups within the sequence. The simplest form for  $a(t)$  is a rectangular time function of width,  $T_1$  seconds, centered about  $t = 0$ . Mathematically, this is expressed as

$$a(t) = \text{rect}[t] = \begin{cases} 1 & : |t| \leq T_1/2 \\ 0 & : \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

As will be shown, the input sequence must be greater than or equal to  $T_1$  so that this technique will yield optimal results. The potential signal-to-noise ratio in this case is derived below. For simplicity and without loss in generality, let  $E[n_0(\underline{r};t)] = 0$ . Also, let the noise spectrum be white Gaussian and the point-spread function of the optical system  $|h(\underline{r})|^2$  equal  $\delta(\underline{r})$ .

For an image sequence of long duration, the input signal intensity has a Fourier transform of the form

$$S(\underline{k};\omega) = T_0 \text{sinc}[(\omega + \underline{k} \cdot \underline{v}) T_0/2\pi] S_0(\underline{k}) e^{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r}_0} \quad (7)$$

where

$$T_0 \equiv \text{frame sequence length } (\geq T_1) = MT'_0$$

$$T'_0 \equiv \text{time between frames, and}$$

$$\text{sinc}[\sigma] = \frac{\text{sinc}(\pi\sigma)}{\pi\sigma} \quad (8)$$

Figure 1 illustrates a target moving across a fixed scene in  $M = T_0/T_1$  frames of a sufficiently large sequence of images. Using equation 1 with a rectangular-window signal function, the optimum three-dimensional filter becomes

$$H(\underline{k};\omega) = T_1 \text{sinc}[(\omega + \underline{k} \cdot \underline{v}) T_1/2\pi] \frac{S_0^*(\underline{k})}{N_0} \quad (9)$$

for a white-Gaussian background-clutter target-detection scenario. This implies that the output image has a mean level at the target position equal to

FINITE DATA SEQUENCE:

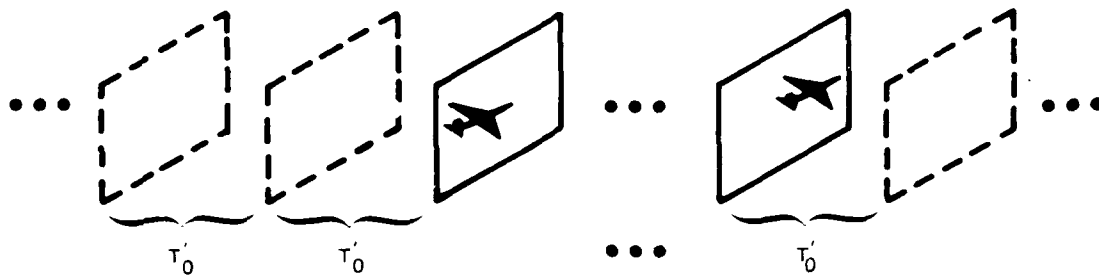


Figure 1. Example image set containing a moving target transvering a fixed scene during a finite portion of a countably infinite data sequence.

$$E\{y(\underline{r};t)\} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} H(\underline{k};\omega) S(\underline{k};\omega) \exp\{i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} + i\omega t\} d^2k d\omega$$

$$= \frac{T_0 T_1}{(2\pi)^3} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{|S_0(\underline{k})|^2}{N_0} \text{sinc}[(\omega + \underline{k} \cdot \underline{v}) T_0/2\pi] \quad (10)$$

$$\times \text{sinc}[(\omega + \underline{k} \cdot \underline{v}) T_1/2\pi] \exp\{i\underline{k} \cdot (\underline{r} - \underline{r}_0) + i\omega t\} d^2k d\omega$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{S_0(\underline{r}' - \underline{r} + \underline{r}_0 + \underline{v}t) S_0^*(\underline{r}')}{N_0} d^2r' \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \text{rect}\left[\frac{t'}{T_0}\right] \text{rect}\left[\frac{t - t'}{T_1}\right] dt' \quad (11)$$

$$= B(t) \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{S_0(\underline{r}' - \underline{r} + \underline{r}_0 + \underline{v}t) S_0^*(\underline{r}')}{N_0} d^2r' \quad (12)$$

where

$$B(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & : |t| > |T_0/2 + T_1/2| \\ t + T_0/2 + T_1/2 & : -T_0/2 - T_1/2 \leq t < -T_0/2 + T_1/2 \\ T_1 & : |t| \leq |T_0/2 - T_1/2| \\ T_0/2 + T_1/2 - t & : T_0/2 - T_1/2 \leq t < T_0/2 + T_1/2 \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

From equation 13, it is apparent that the matched-filter peak(s) occur within the central portion of the second image sequence of time length  $T_0$ . Normally, this peak(s) would be expected to appear towards the end of the data sequence. However, the central processing peak approach was chosen out of a desire for symmetry in the processed output and will be

retained for the remainder of this report. Both output approaches are correct, but those readers desiring the classical result need only multiply equation 9 by the appropriate phase term to shift the filter peak to the sequence end.

The image variance is given by

$$\text{VAR} [y(\underline{r};t)] = \frac{N_0}{(2\pi)^3} \iiint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |H(\underline{k};\omega)|^2 d^2k d\omega \quad (14)$$

$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \iint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{|S_0(\underline{k})|^2}{N_0} d^2k (T_1)^2 \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \text{sinc}^2 \left[ \frac{\omega' T_1}{2\pi} \right] d\omega' \quad (15)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \iint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{|S_0(\underline{r}')|^2}{N_0} d^2r' (4/\pi) \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 \left( \frac{\omega' T_1}{2} \right)}{(\omega')^2} d^2\omega' \quad (16)$$

$$= T_1 \iint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{|S_0(\underline{r}')|^2}{N_0} d^2r' \quad (17)$$

Thus the resulting signal-to-noise ratio can be written as

$$\text{SNR} = \frac{(E\{y(\underline{r};t)\})^2}{\text{VAR} [y(\underline{r};t)]} \quad (18)$$

$$= \frac{B^2(t) \left[ \iint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{S_0(\underline{r}' - \underline{r} + \underline{r}_0 + \underline{v}t) S_0^*(\underline{r}')}{N_0} d^2r' \right]^2}{T_1 \iint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{|S_0(\underline{r}'')|^2}{N_0} d^2r''} \quad (19)$$

$$\rightarrow T_1 \iint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{|S_0(\underline{r}')|^2}{N_0} d^2r' \quad (20)$$

at its peak location. It is apparent from equation 20 that three-dimensional matched filtering yields a peak signal-to-noise ratio increase over two-dimensional matched filtering by a factor of  $T_1$ , the temporal width of the rectangular time filter. Clearly, this gain can be significant for most reasonable integration times. However, it should be emphasized that these results hold only for constant target intensity. Adjustments in the required SNR margin should be made for intensity variations such as scintillation and fading of the target, which might occur during the filter integration time. In the following section, a sequence of computer-generated images with a modeled airplane moving across the frames is used to verify these results.

### 3.0 ENSEMBLE MOVING-PICTURE PROCESSING OF SIMULATED DATA

To test the above theoretical formulation, three groups of 30 sample sets were created. Each sample set consisted of 19 white Gaussian images, with a modeled airplane propagating across each of them. The random numbers used in each group of each set were independently obtained from a mathematical procedure suggested by Dillard [13]. Each group contained zero mean image sequences with an average noise clutter of 10.0. The three groups are distinguished by having target signatures with single-pixel signal-to-noise ratios of 6 dB, 0 dB, and -6 dB, respectively. Here we define the single-pixel signal-to-noise ratio to be

$$\text{SNR}_i = \frac{[\overline{S_0} - \overline{B}]^2}{\sigma^2} \quad (21)$$

with  $\overline{S_0} \equiv$  intensity value of the target within one pixel

$\overline{B} \equiv$  mean background intensity level  
 $[= 0.0 \text{ for this simulation}]$

and  $\sigma \equiv$  Standard deviation of the background clutter  
 $[= 10.0 \text{ for this simulation}]$ .

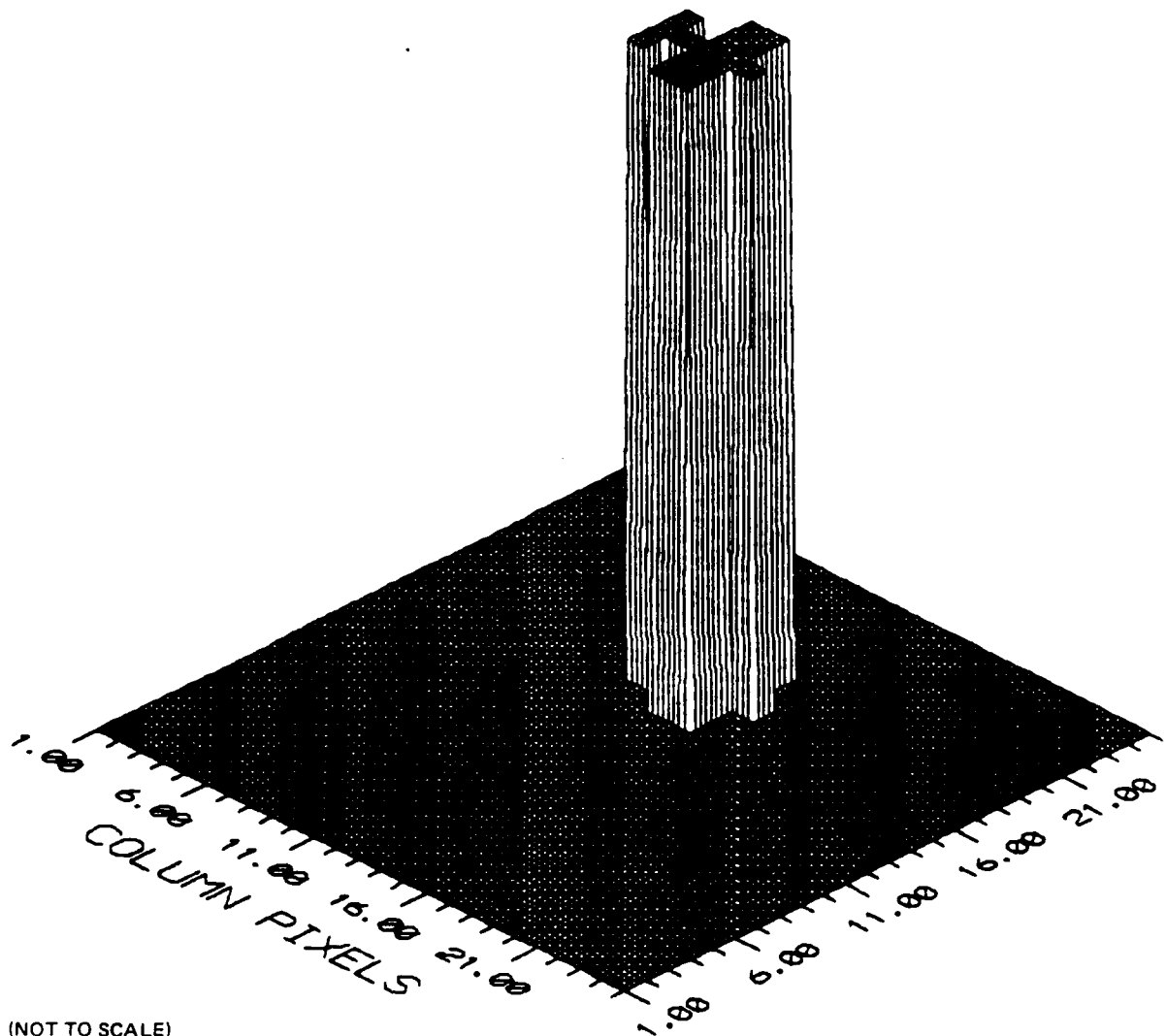
Figure 2 illustrates an example frame of data and the spatial profile of the simulation target. In this figure, the spatial dimensions of the image are  $23 \times 23$  pixels and the signal-to-noise ratio at one target pixel is 23.5 dB. Figure 3 shows the same frame as in figure 2, except that the target signal-to-noise ratio is 0 dB. The speed of the target was set at a uniform 1 pixel per frame. Specific matched filters were generated by using equation 1 for each image sequence for the following integration time windows:  $T = 1, 3, 4, 9, 11, 15$ , and 19. Each image and each sequence were zero-filled to yield  $45 \times 45 \times 45$  arrays to minimize image wraparound when processed by using the discrete, finite-interval Fourier transform. Figures 4, 5, and 6 plot the expected signal-to-noise ratio given in equation 19 for the matched-filter peak as a function of frame number for initial single-target-pixel signal-to-noise ratios (SNR) equal to 6 dB, 0 dB, and -6 dB, respectively. For these calculations, the peak signal-to-noise ratio can be written as

$$\text{SNR}_p = 10 \log_{10} T_1 + 10 \log_{10} (15) + \text{SNR}_i \text{ (dB)} \quad (22a)$$

$$= 10 \log_{10} (T_1) + 11.76 \text{ dB} + \text{SNR}_i \quad (22b)$$

in decibels. The first term represents the processing gain from temporal matched filtering, the second represents the gain from spatial matched filtering (equal to the number of independent samples composing the target), and the third term is the inherent signal-to-noise ratio of the target in this background clutter. These last two terms comprise the expected peak signal-to-noise ratio obtainable from two-dimensional matched filtering. Using equation 22b, the linear increase of signal-to-noise ratio with observation time can clearly be seen in these three figures.

# INITIAL TARGET PROFILE



(NOT TO SCALE)

Figure 2. Spatial profile of simulation target.



# 0 dB SIGNAL IMAGE

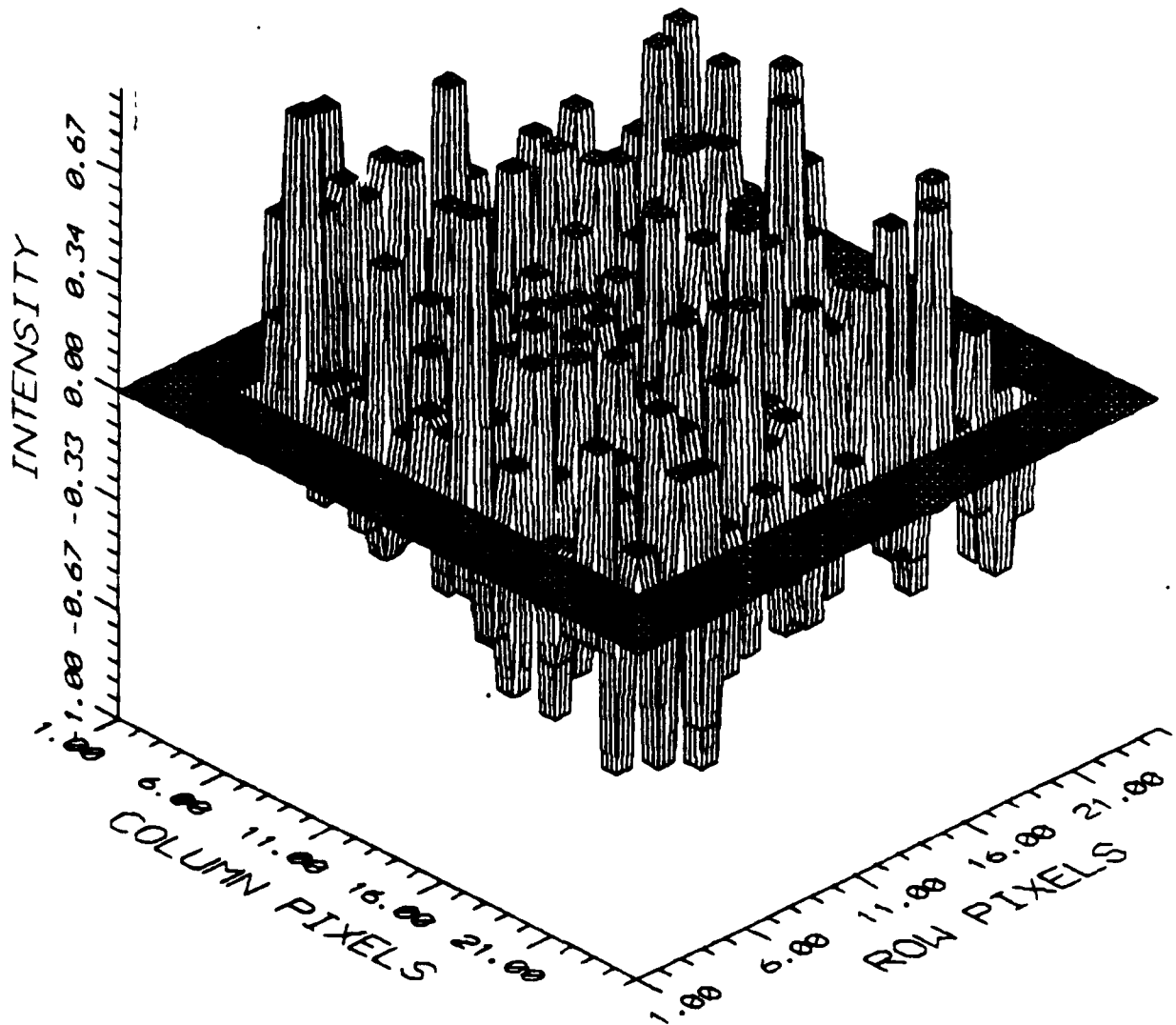


Figure 3. Same target as in figure 2, but with white-Gaussian noise added.

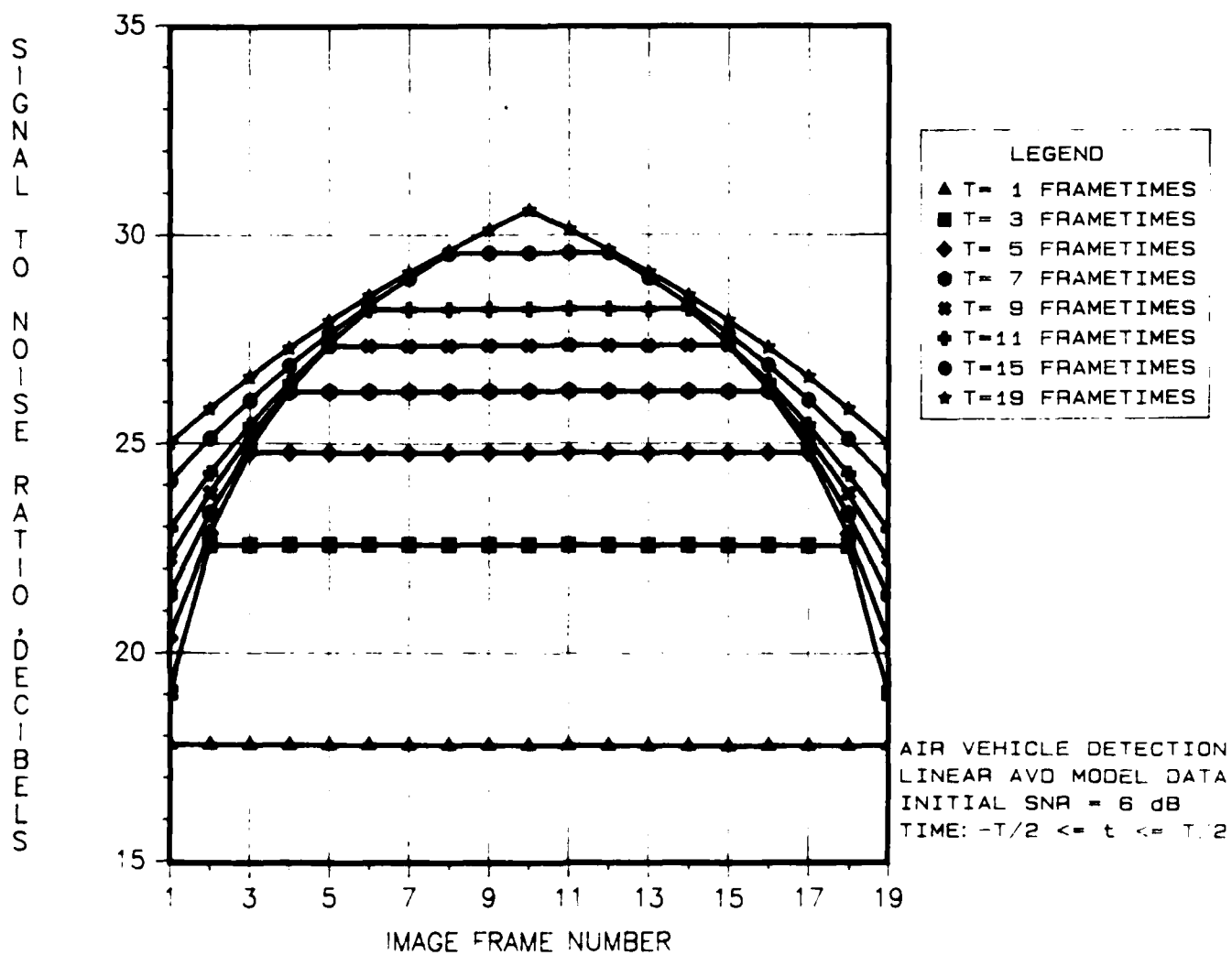


Figure 4. Theoretical signal-to-noise ratio from 3-D filtering for SNR<sub>i</sub> = 6 dB

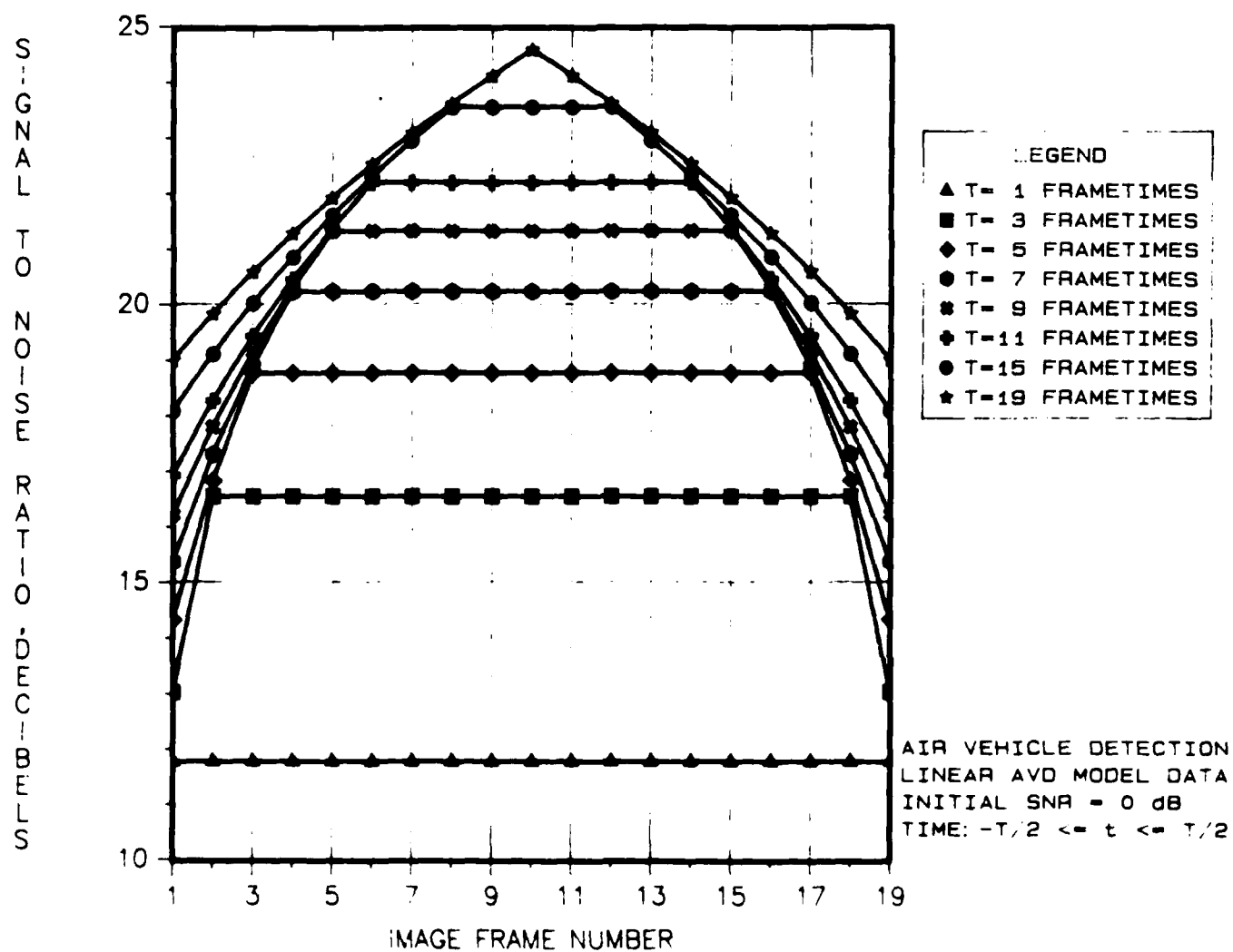


Figure 5 Theoretical signal to-noise ratio from 3-D filtering SNR = 0 dB

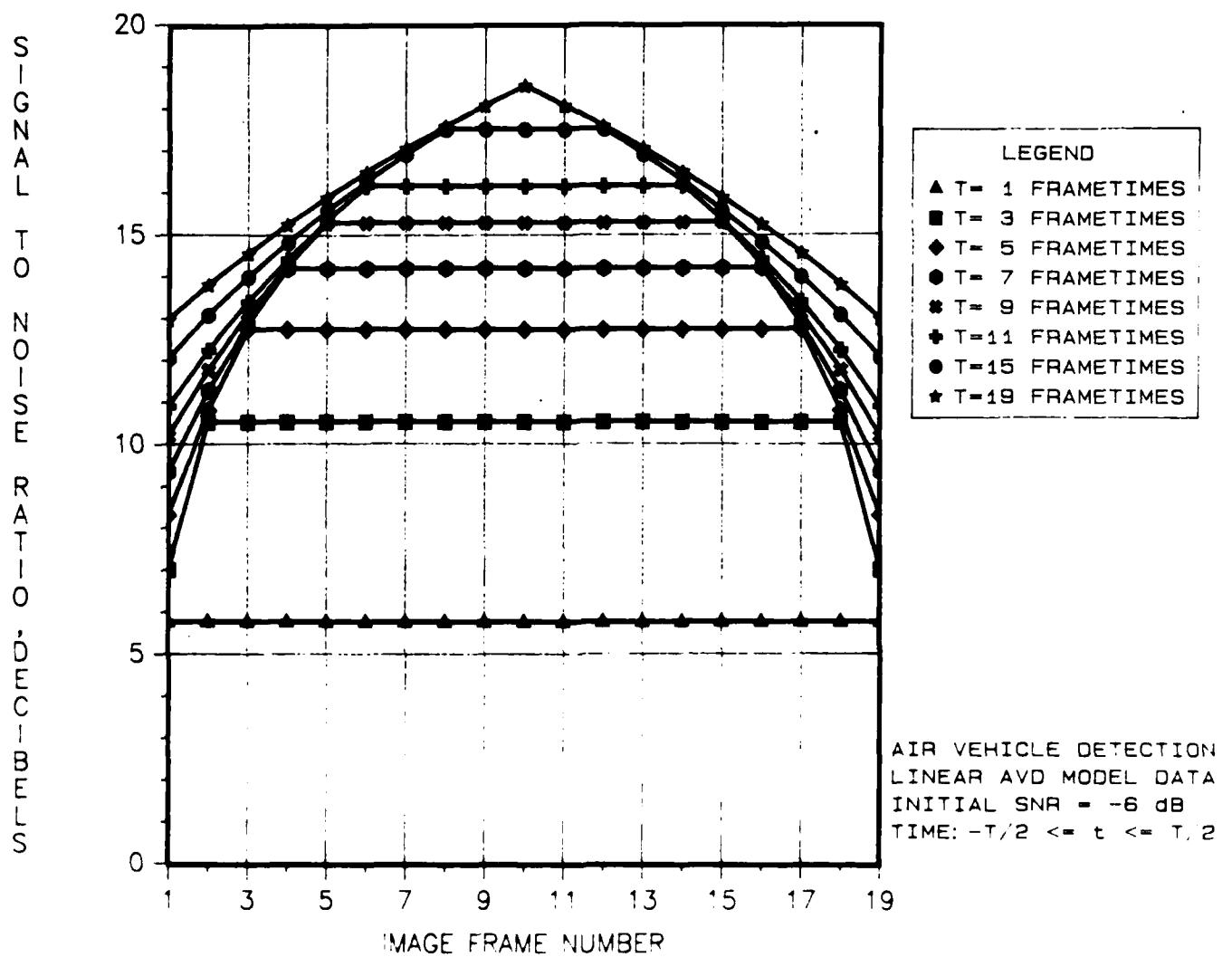


Figure 6. Signal-to-noise ratio from 3-D filtering. SNR = -6 dB

Figures 7 and 8 were typical filtered images obtained by three matched filters processing the image sequences from which figure 6 was taken, using an observation window of 15 frames. These last two figures were created by squaring the real and imaginary parts of each filtered image pixel and storing their individual sum as the resulting filtered pixel for each processed image. The signal-to-noise ratio of each image was calculated by sampling the highest filtered target pixel (the peak created by the matched filtering), calculating the first-order moment of the individual frame (minus the target area contribution), and using the equation

$$\text{SNR}_M = \frac{E\{S^2 + N^2\}}{E\{N^2\}} - 1 \quad (23)$$

The pixel location of the peak intensity was in row 14 and in a column position equal to the frame number plus two. The signal-to-noise ratios for figure 7 were around 23.5 dB. Specific details of the processed results are as follows.

Figure 8 shows resulting signal-to-noise ratios for the filtered 6-dB image set as a function of the observation window. These signal-to-noise ratios were obtained by averaging 30 samples of measured signal levels and mean noise levels within a  $1 \times 10 \times 1 \times 23$  window of each image and using equation 23. It is apparent from this figure that the signal-to-noise ratios for each image increases with integration time, with the greatest gains within the center images. From our discussion in the previous section, this is not too surprising. However, a comparison of figure 8 with figure 4 shows that the measured signal-to-noise ratios have a more graceful falloff from their peak values than theory predicts. The reason for this is shown in figure 9. Recall that figure 1 illustrates the assumed processing geometry for the theoretical development given above. We have an infinite (or very large) number of frames in which a certain number of frames will have a target propagating across the sequence. This allows maximum buildup of signal energy and a constant noise variance to occur. Figure 9 shows the real situation. We are really dealing with a finite number of frames; 19 in this simulation. This implies that the noise variance will be subject to the same energy buildup as the signal energy does, and will be given by

$$\text{VAR} \{y(r, t)\} = B(t) \int \int \frac{S_0(r)^2}{N_0} d^2r \quad (24)$$

This is because the ensemble moving-picture processing is a sliding-interval technique and will include zero-filled images in its processing chain for large integration times. The result is a filtered signal-to-noise ratio equal to

$$\text{SNR} = B(t) \frac{\int \int \frac{S_0(r)^2 (1 + T_0 + T_0^2 + \dots + S_0(r)^2)}{N_0} d^2r}{\int \int \frac{S_0(r)^2}{N_0} d^2r} \quad (25)$$

# 0 dB 3-D MATCHED FILTER RESULT

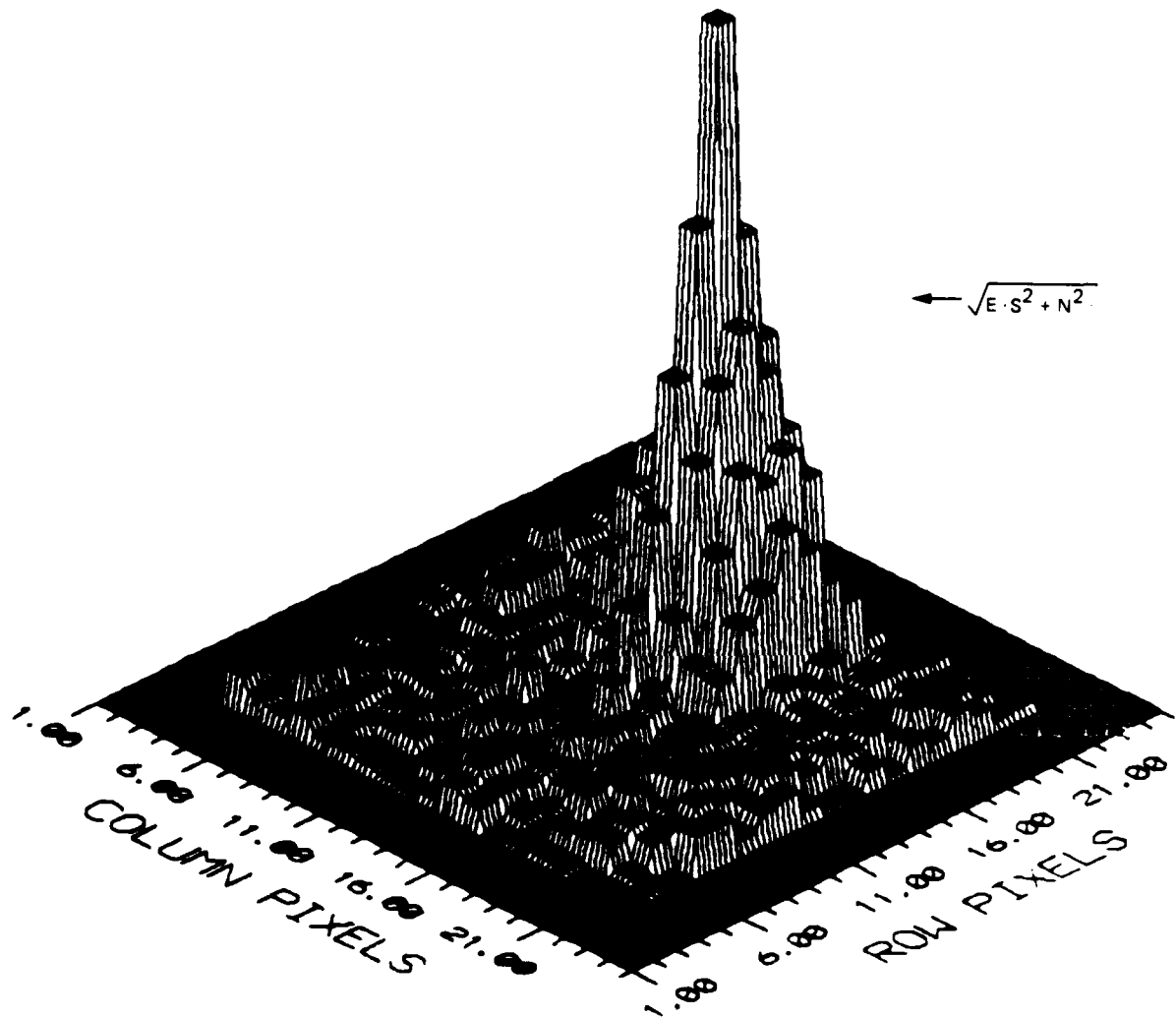


Figure 7. Square root of the filtered image sequence, frame 8

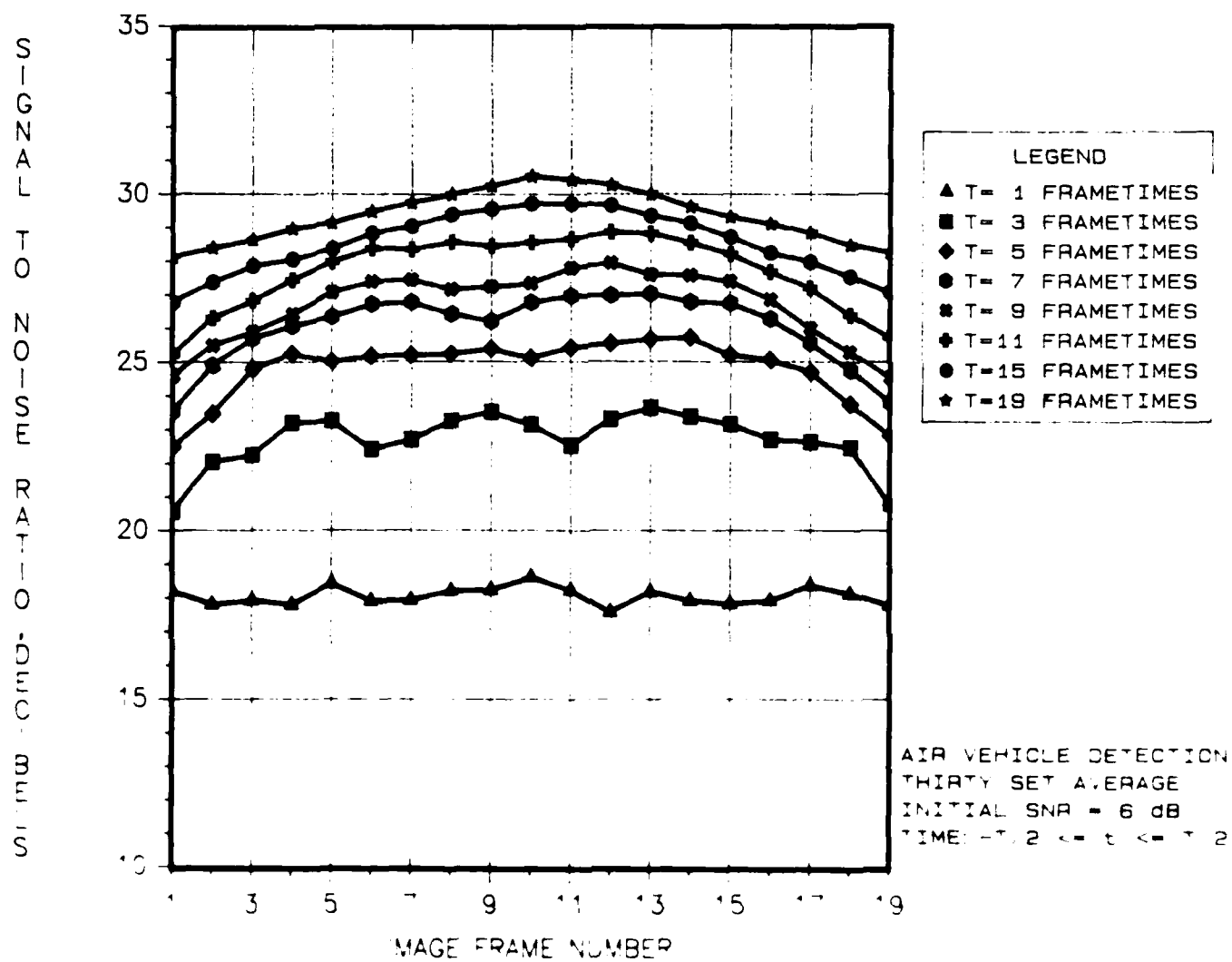


Figure 8 Resulting individual frame signal to noise ratios as a function of frame number for various integration times. SNR = 6 dB

#### INFINITE DATA SEQUENCE:

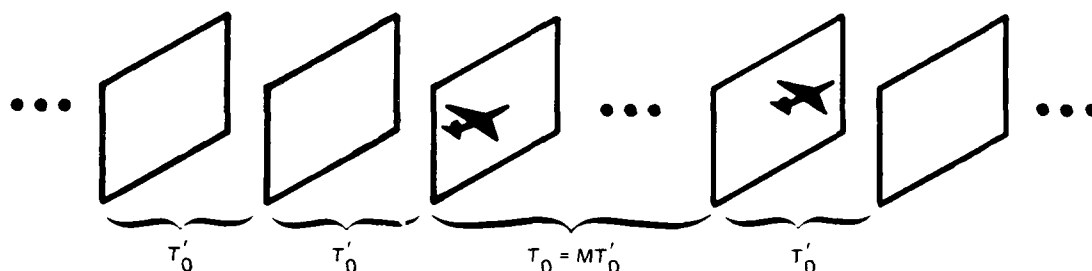


Figure 9. Realistic image-processing geometry for three-dimensional matched filtering.

rather than equation 19. Figure 10 shows a comparison of equation 25 with the measured signal-to-noise ratio shown in figure 8. It is apparent that these results agree well with the revised theory. However, it is also clear that there is a slight oscillation, on the order of a dB or less, of the measured signal-to-noise ratio for the smaller filter integration times. Figures 11 and 12 compare equations 12 and 24 with the measured signal and noise variance levels, respectively. It is clear from figure 11 that the measured signal level follows the theory almost perfectly, while figure 12 shows an oscillatory nature in the measured noise variance as compared to theory. This may be a result of our using an infinite-interval processing filter with finite-domain Fourier-transformed imagery, whose effects average out for large filter integration times. However, this oscillatory effect is small and does not negate the power of the technique.

Figure 13 illustrates the measured signal-to-noise ratio from the 0-dB initial SNR simulation with equation 25. As noted earlier, the image sequences used were drawn from a completely different random-number sequence than was used to create the 6-dB set. It is clear that these results also agree well with the revised theory, with the same oscillatory behavior at the lower integration times. Figures 14 and 15 compare equations 12 and 24 with the measured signal and noise variance levels, respectively, and show that the oscillations are in the measured noise variance, as noted before. Figures 16, 17, and 18 repeat the same comparisons as 13, 14, and 15, respectively, except for an initial signal-to-noise ratio of -6 dB. These results are consistent with the other two independent simulations and illustrate that three-dimensional matched filtering can bring a target's presence out of the noise in a predictable fashion. This can be quite important for weak target detection in strong background noise or when target fading occurs.

Figures 10, 13, and 16 indicate that three-dimensional matched filtering creates a matched-filter peak within one frame such that a target/no-target decision can be made by means of intensity thresholding there. This suggests that this approach may have merit in a moving-target indicator (MTI) scheme.

#### 4.0 ENSEMBLE MOVING-PICTURE PROCESSING AS A MOVING-TARGET INDICATOR

The sensitivity of ensemble moving-picture processing to velocity mismatch can be assessed as follows. From our development in section 2, it can be seen that a velocity mismatch will only affect the filtered signal level, but not the processed noise level. This implies that one needs only to recalculate the mean signal level  $\langle y(t, t) \rangle$ . The input sequence to



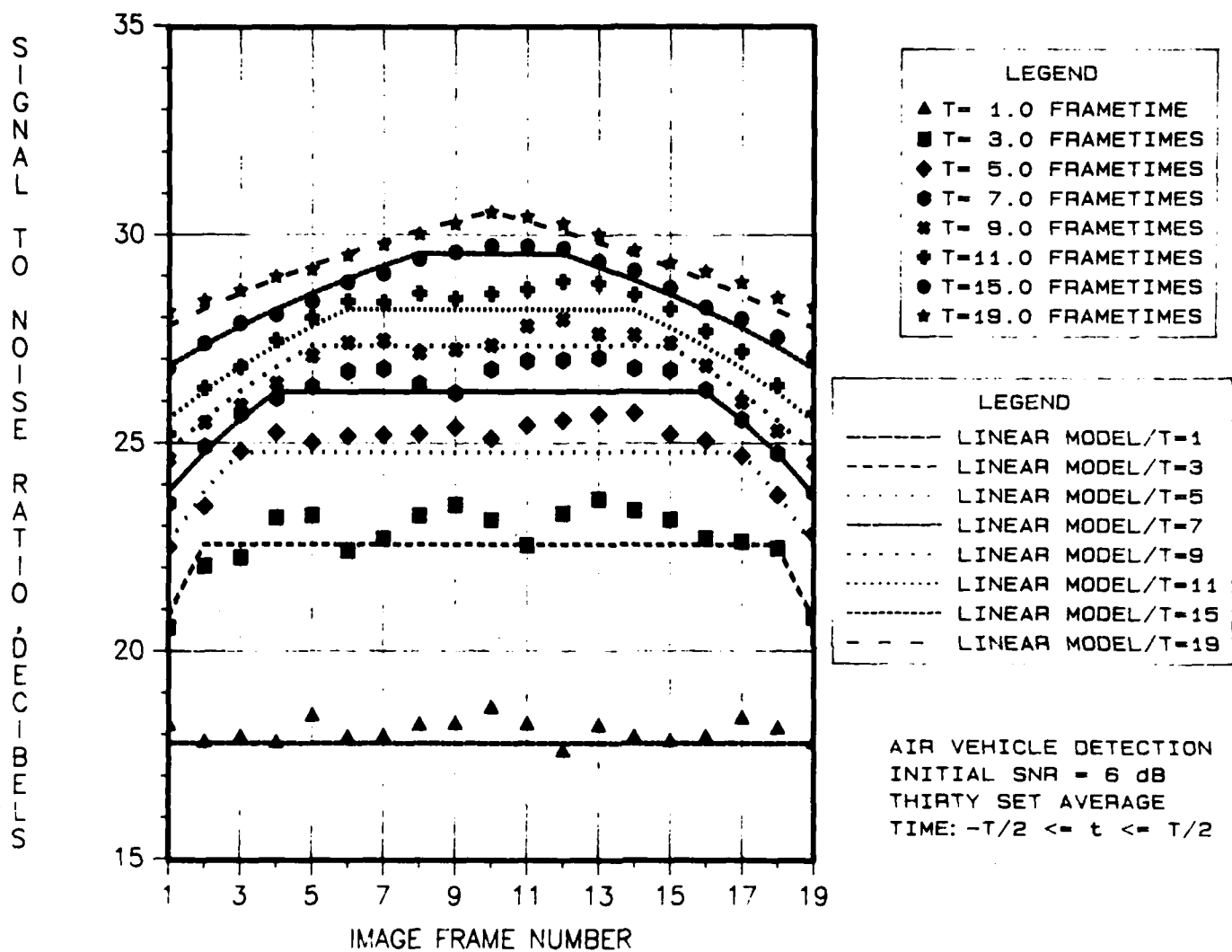


Figure 10. Comparison of revised theoretical signal-to-noise ratio from 3-D filtering with simulated data-processed results.  $SNR_i = 6$  dB.

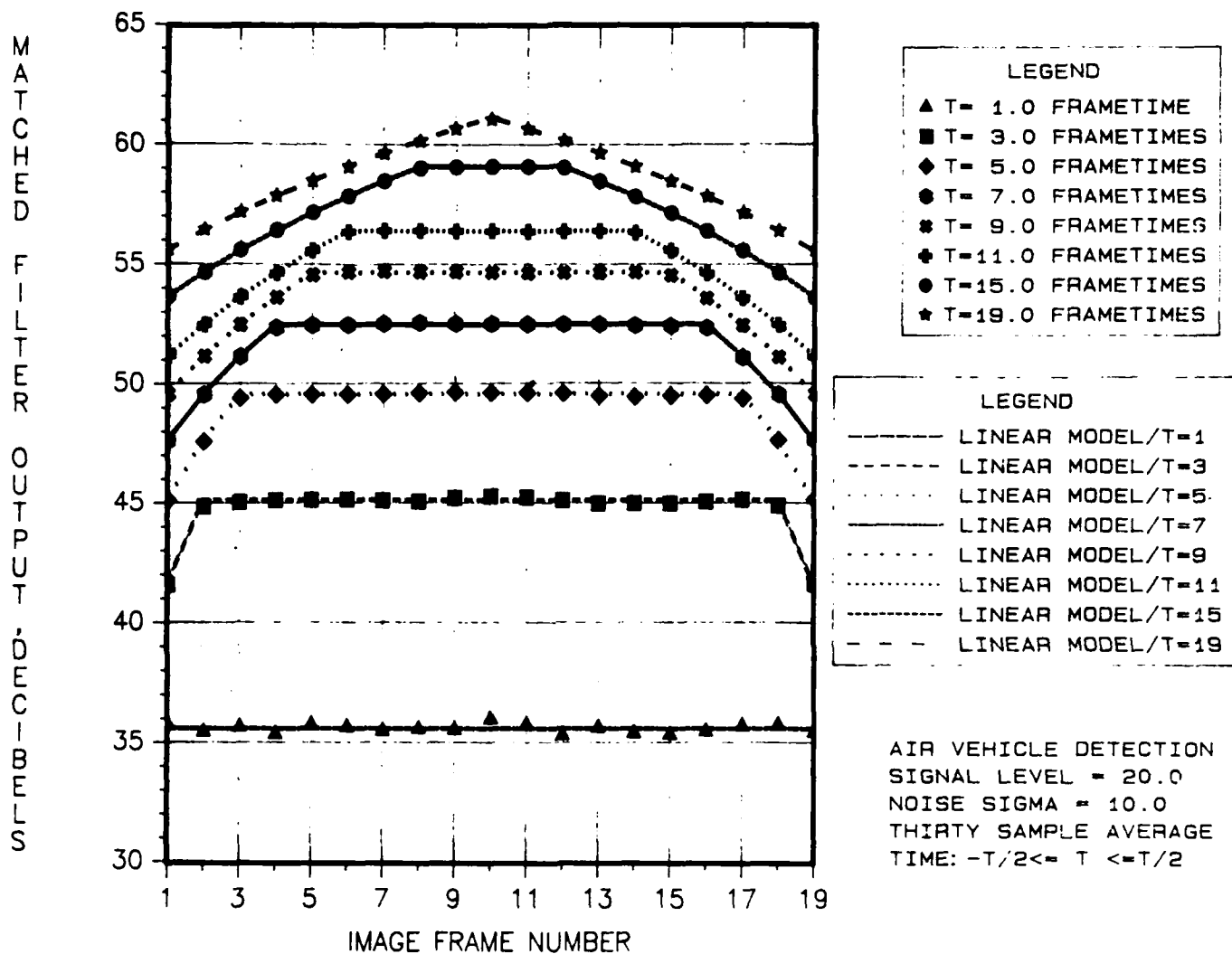


Figure 11. Comparison of increased signal energy with revised theory:  $SNR_i = 6$  dB.

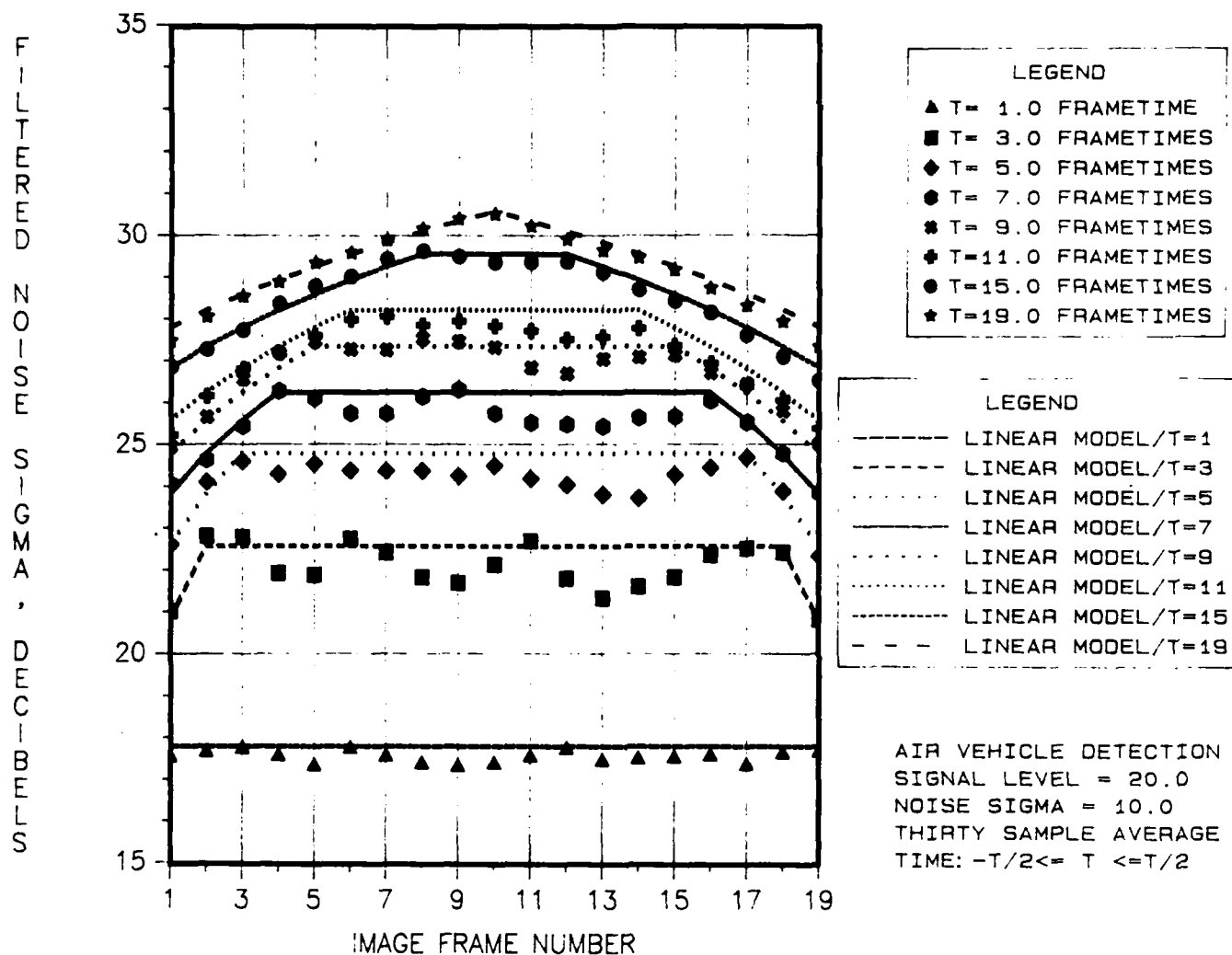


Figure 12. Comparison of filtered image noise variance with revised theory:  $SNR_i = 6$  dB.

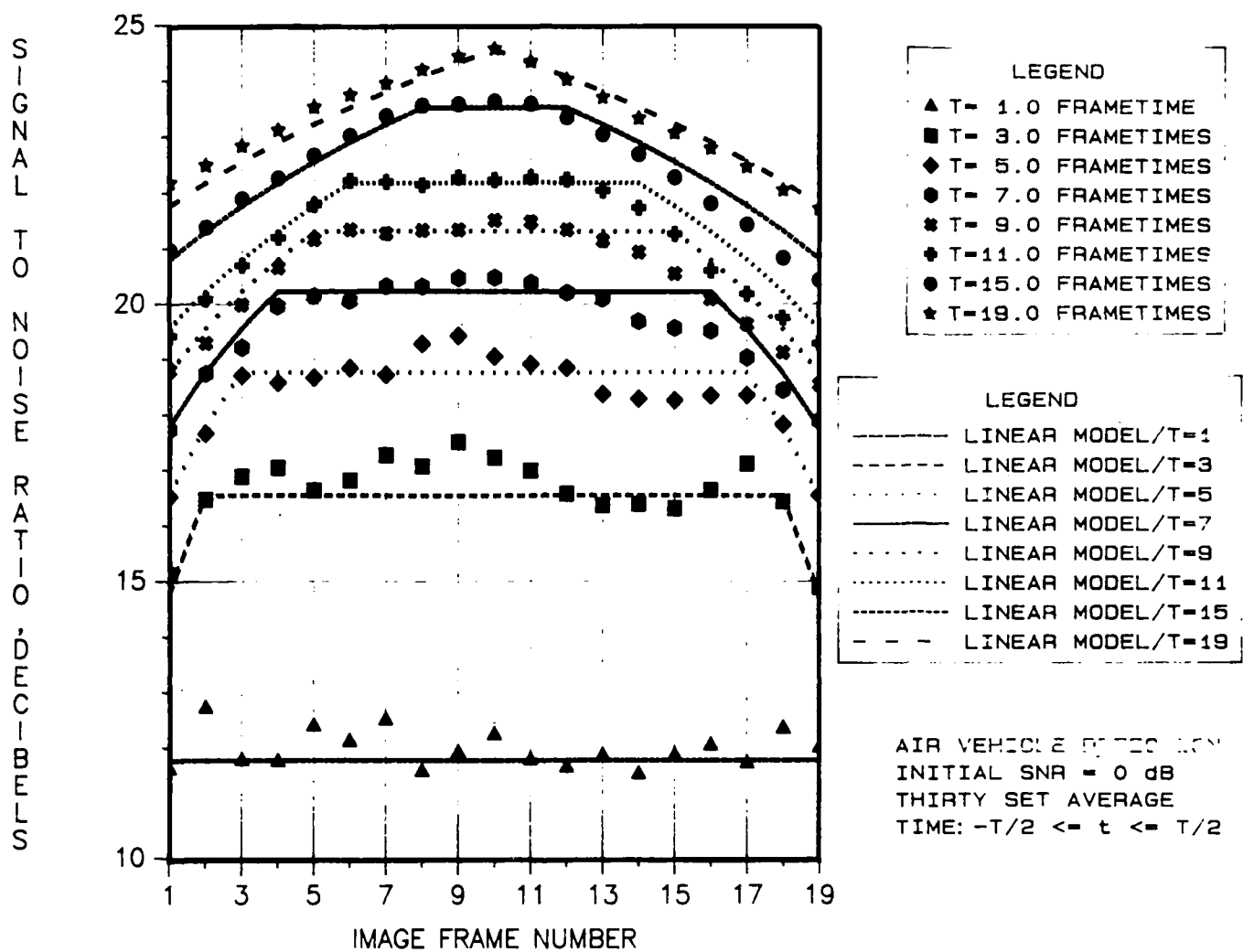


Figure 13. Comparison of revised theoretical signal-to-noise ratio from 3-D filtering with simulated data-processed results:  $SNR_i = 0$  dB.

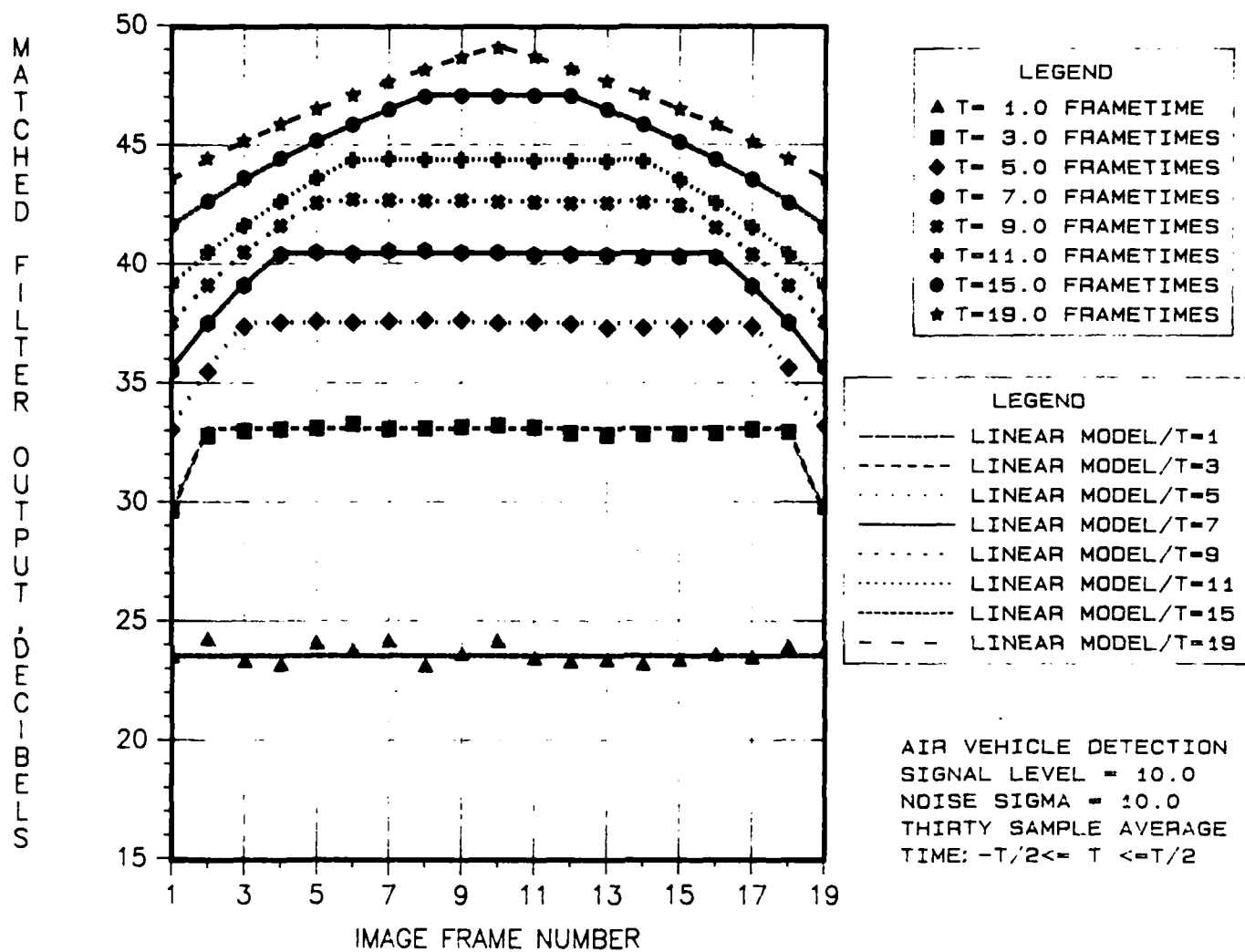


Figure 14. Comparison of measured signal level with procedural results:  $SNR_i = 0$  dB.

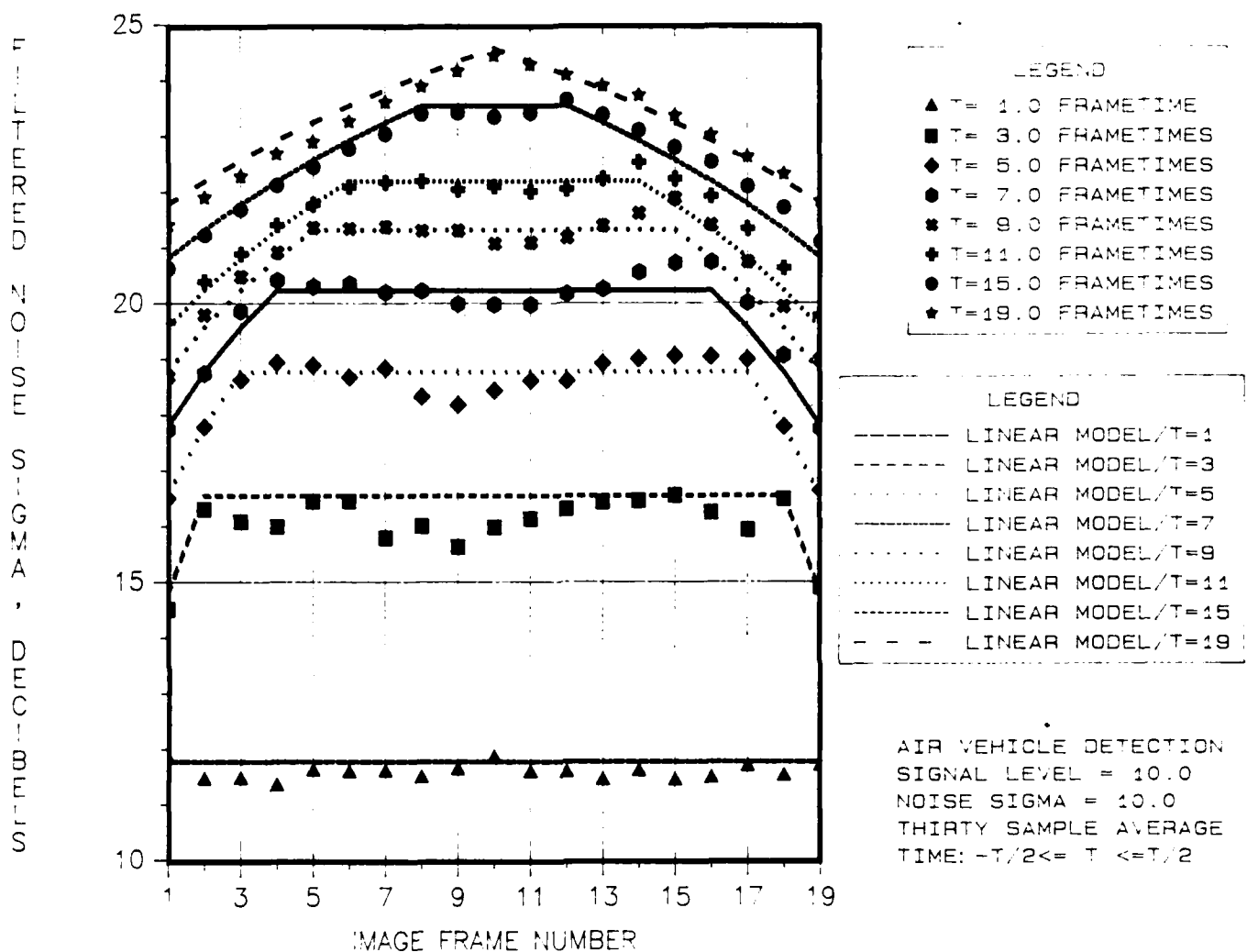


Figure 15. Comparison of measured noise-level variance with revised theory:  $SNR_i = 0$  dB.

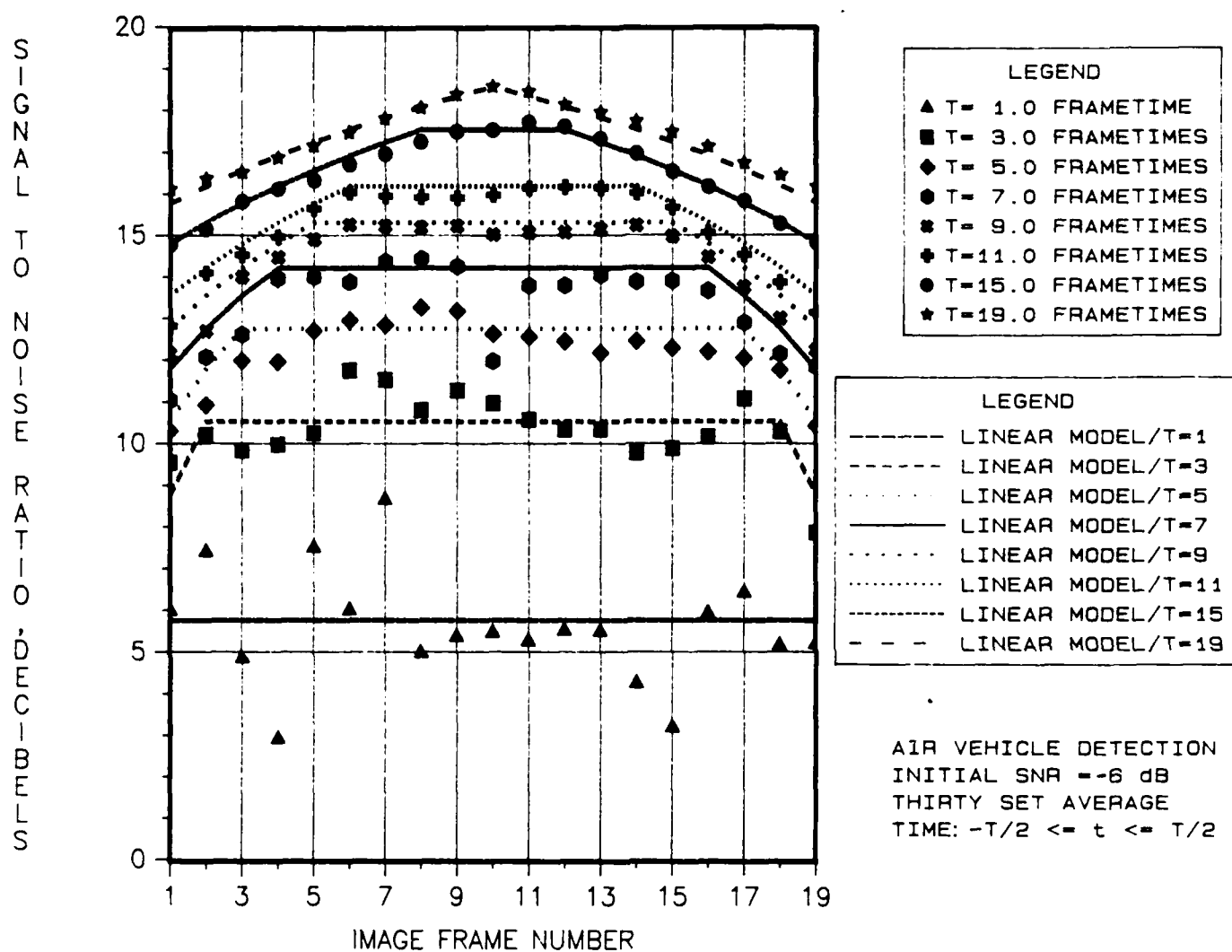
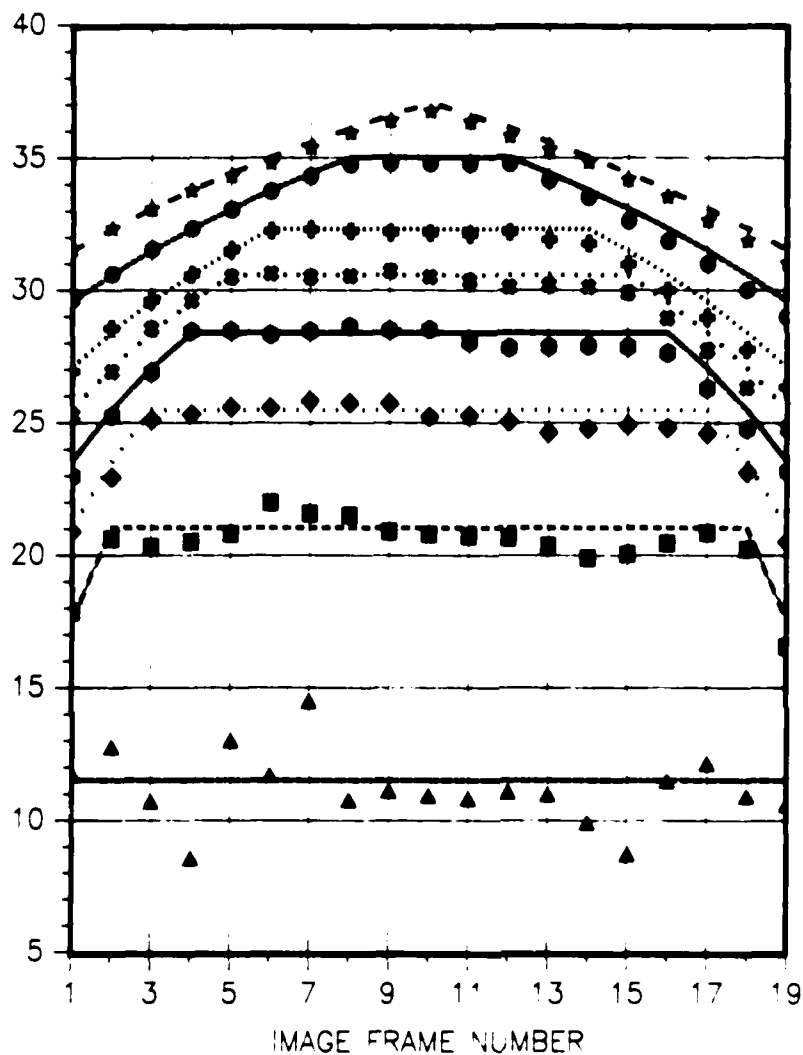


Figure 16. Comparison of revised theoretical signal-to-noise ratio from 3-dB filtering with simulated data-processed results:  $SNR_i = -6$  dB.

MATCHED FILTER OUTPUT, DECIBELS



LEGEND

- ▲  $T = 1.0$  FRAME TIME
- $T = 3.0$  FRAME TIMES
- ◆  $T = 5.0$  FRAME TIMES
- $T = 7.0$  FRAME TIMES
- $T = 9.0$  FRAME TIMES
- ◆  $T = 11.0$  FRAME TIMES
- $T = 15.0$  FRAME TIMES
- ★  $T = 19.0$  FRAME TIMES

LEGEND

- LINEAR MODEL  $T = 1$
- LINEAR MODEL  $T = 3$
- LINEAR MODEL  $T = 5$
- LINEAR MODEL  $T = 7$
- LINEAR MODEL  $T = 9$
- LINEAR MODEL  $T = 11$
- LINEAR MODEL  $T = 15$
- LINEAR MODEL  $T = 19$

AIR VEHICLE DETECTION  
 SIGNAL LEVEL = 5.0  
 NOISE SIGMA = 10.0  
 THIRTY SAMPLE AVERAGE  
 TIME:  $-T/2 \leq t \leq T/2$

Figure 17. Comparison of measured signal energy with revised theory. SNR = -6 dB



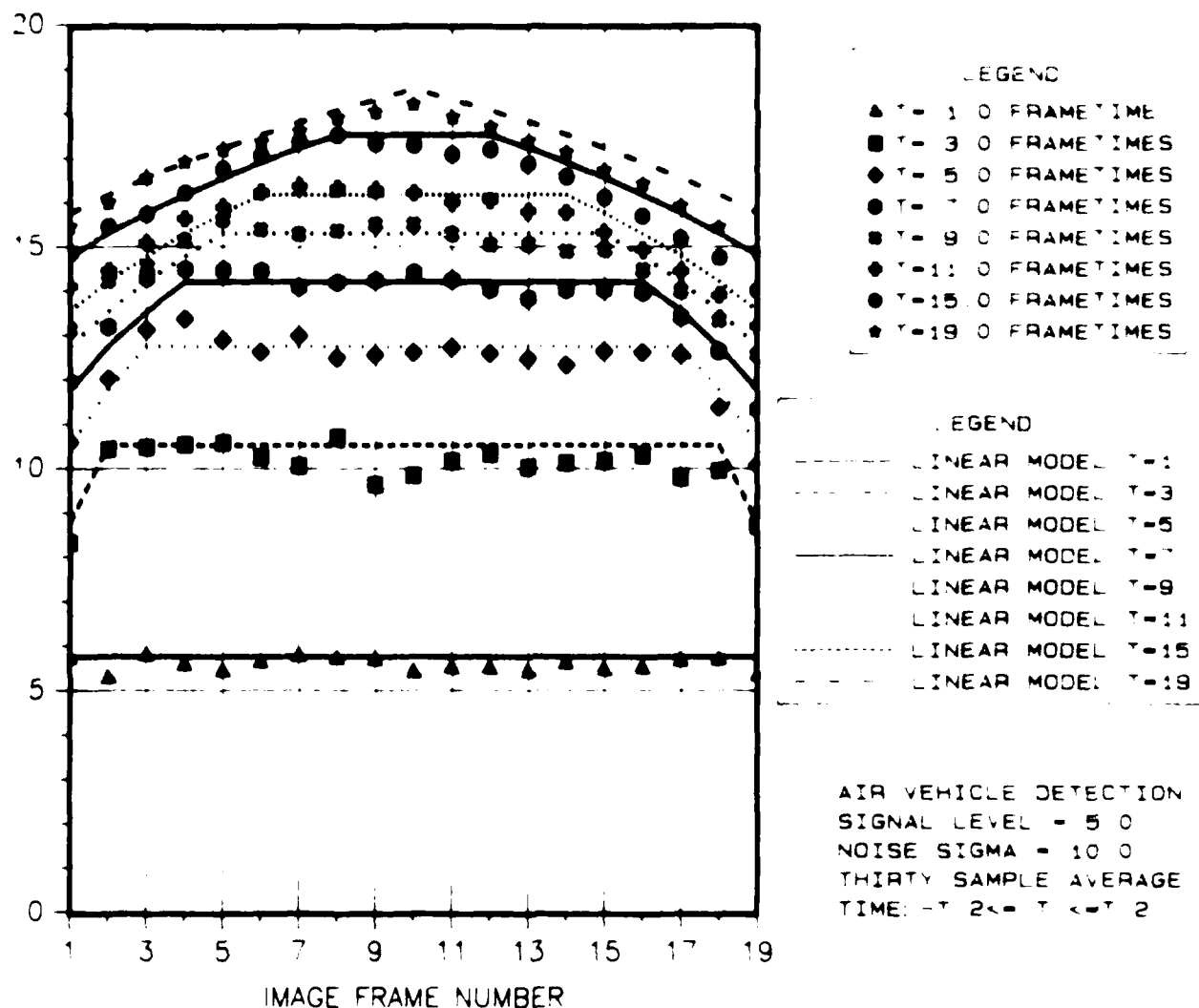


Figure 18 Comparison of filtered image noise variance with revised theory, SNR = 6 dB

be processed again is given by equation 7

$$S_0(x, \omega) = I_0 \sin c(\pi(\omega + k + v_0)T) I_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{S}_0(k) e^{-j2\pi kx} dk \quad (27)$$

but the processing filter now equals

$$H(k, \omega) = I_0 \sin c(\pi(\omega + k + v_1)T) I_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\hat{S}_0^*(k)}{N_0} dk \quad (28)$$

In the above equations,  $v_0$  is the actual target velocity,  $v_1$  is the velocity setting of the filter and  $S_0$  is the Fourier transform of the target's spatial profile in its proper angular orientation. The mean signal level after processing is therefore

$$E\{S(x, t)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{S_0((x - t + v_0) + v_0) I_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{S}_0(k) e^{-j2\pi kx} dk}{N_0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{I_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{S}_0^*(k)}{N_0} dk d^2\tau \quad (29)$$

which goes to

$$B(x) = \iint \frac{S_0((x - t + v_0) + v_0) I_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{S}_0(k) e^{-j2\pi kx} dk}{N_0} d^2\tau$$

for  $v_0 = v_1$ . Equation 28 shows that the resulting signal level for a velocity mismatch reduces the inherent spatial matched-filter gain by a time-dependent spatial shift proportional to the velocity difference,  $v_1 - v_0$ . The sensitivity of this mismatch is both a function of target shape as well as velocity difference. For small targets, this technique would serve as an MTF processor.

To test this hypothesis, the 6-dB image set was processed with a set of matched filters tuned to different target speeds. The propagation direction was assumed to be correct. Any directional mismatches would reduce the filter signal level further, so one might consider this a best-velocity-mismatch scenario. The possible target speeds were varied from 0.0 to 3.0 pixels per frame (p/f). The 6-dB target traversing the input frame set was moving at a constant velocity of 1 pixel per frame. Figure 19 shows the measured signal-to-noise ratio at the SNR peak locations used to create figure 10 as a function of airplane speed. The filter observation time is 19. It is apparent that ensemble processing with incorrectly tuned matched filters yields lower signal-to-noise ratios than those resulting from the use of the correct filter, as expected. Interestingly, there is a notable asymmetry between the processed SNRs, depending on whether the filter velocity is above or below the actual target velocity. Specifically, the resulting signal-to-noise ratios degrade slightly more slowly for those filters whose speeds are in excess of the actual speed of 1 p/f. This is more clearly seen in figure 20, which depicts the SNR for the peak frame location, frame 10. From equation 28, we see that a target-filter mismatch will result in spatial matched-filter convolution at a nonoptimum offset and at a peak-time-convolution location. In essence, it appears that the resulting filtered target signature is essentially optical blurring of the expected "matched" filter peak in the target movement location. That is, the filter can coherently stack target energy, but in an ambiguous way. This creates

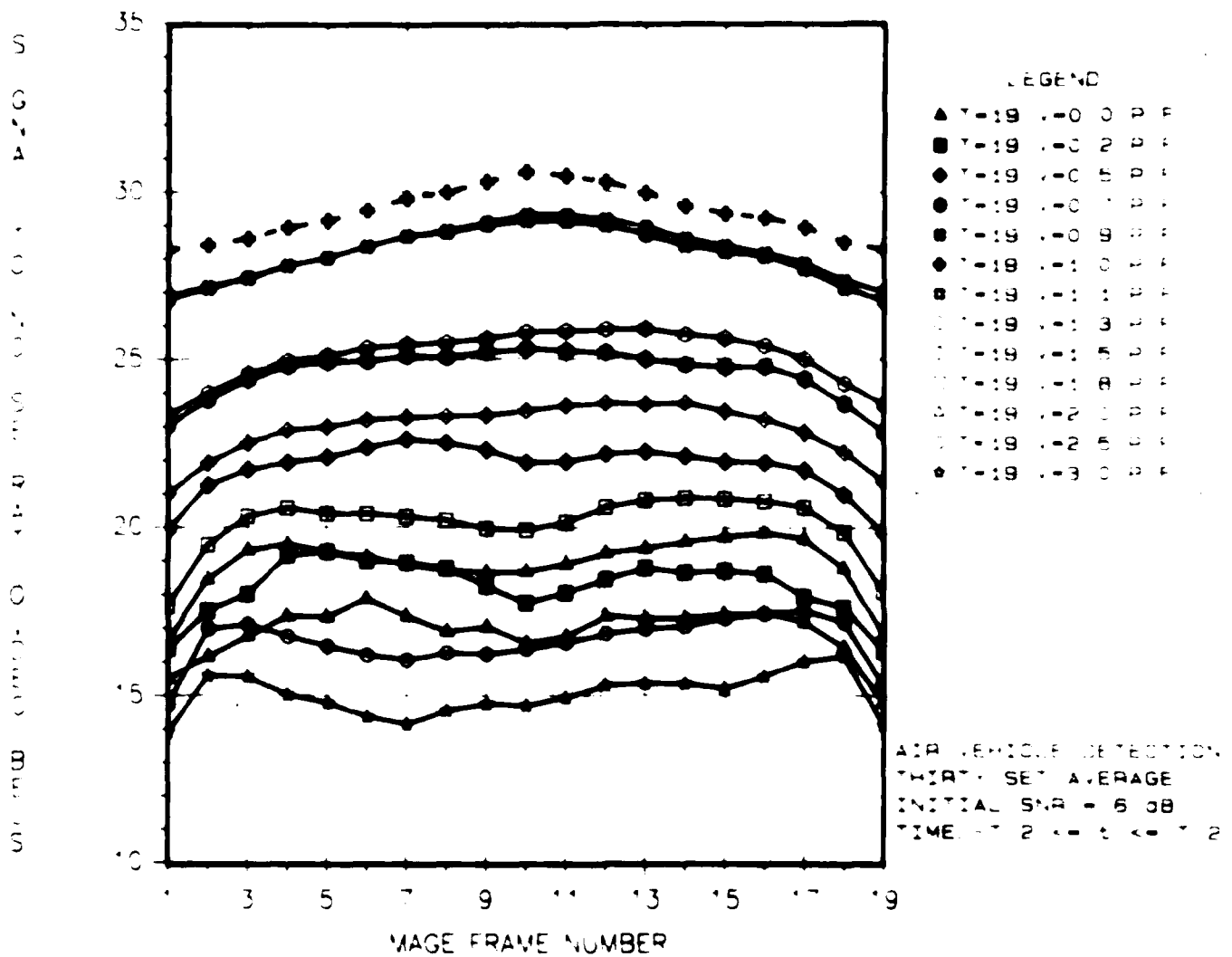


Figure 19. Measured signal to noise ratio for various velocity-tuned filters as a function of frame number.  $T = 19$  and  $SNR = -6$  dB.



uncertainty region for the relative location of the target because of the speed mismatch. The spot will have a slight variation in shape and intensity for equal speed differences, depending on the symmetry of the target. However, the major reason for the SNR asymmetry is that the mismatched speed filters draw in zero-filled imagery or more image noise into the filtering operation. The low-speed filters produced a 1-dB or less increase in optimum noise variance over the range used, and this can be attributed to having a more effective noise filter of lower design speed. The higher speed filters produced a 1-dB or less increase in noise variance by drawing zero-filled imagery into the processed result. Fortunately, all the nonoptimum SNRs are still well below that of the peak signal-to-noise ratio, and the filtering process appears to act as an MFI processor, as suggested above. This is clearly shown in figure 20 for the location of the peak SNR after matched filtering (frame 10). In addition, the graceful degradation of the process under small target-filter speed mismatches suggests that a reasonable number of filters may only be required for the MFI filter bank, not an infinite number tuned to all orientations and speeds. This point is further illustrated in figures 21 and 22.

Figure 21 gives the measured signal-to-noise ratio at the peak SNR pixel location (used to create figures 9 and 18) as a function of frame number and various velocity mismatches. Here we have varied track direction, but have kept target speed at 1 pixel/frame. The frame integration time of the filter is 19, and the angles assessed were 0, 15, 30, 45, 60, 75, 90, 105, 120, 135, 150, 165, and 180 degrees. This figure illustrates an unusual asymmetry in the filtered output, occurring for large angle offsets. This is not a target signature related phenomenon, but rather is the contamination of the statistics window by the optical blurring of the filtered signature profile. This results in an increased noise variance. For example, the filter tuned to positive 60-degree offset tracks looks for a target traversing the image sequence from left to right in the downward direction. The resulting filtered image has target energy smeared over a broader area because of the filter-target-track mismatch. However, this matched filter peak is still somewhat large in magnitude, although large in spatial extent. This softens the testation of 3-D matched filtering being able to extract partial tracks, in this case.

Overlap of the anticipated filter and real target tracks. On the other hand, this partial track capture places target, as well as noise, energy in the statistic window to a varying degree, depending on frame number relative to the filter orientation. Specifically, a 9 dB noise process is created in frame 1, decreasing to 3 dB at frame 10 and decaying to zero after that. Frame 10 has 60-degree filter creates noise contamination in the opposite sequence order. This again highlights the uncertainty regime of target location and direction. The filter peak of each frame actually oscillates about the true direction of target movement as one progresses through a frame set. The optical smear occurs in the opposite direction of the offset, and its width in that direction increases with offset error. Recognizing this effect, the potential of 3-D filtering as an MFI method can be investigated by using these data. Focusing in on the frame 10 result, the measured signal-to-noise ratio degrades slowly for small angle mismatches and decreases more rapidly as the track-angle offset increases. This is seen in figure 22.

In figure 22, where the measured SNR in frame 10 is shown as a function of track-angle offset. Again, it is apparent that the filter performance is highly degradable in an MFI point of view. The figure illustrates once again that this filtering technique can pick up partial tracks of those trajectories which overlap it. In addition, figure 22 demonstrates again that the three-dimensional matched-filtering technique can pick up partial tracks of those targets which overlap it. The reason is that normal matched filtering of optical imagery is independent of the energy of the target that, in its detailed shape, it is sampling. The image of a rectangular object convoluted with an image of a circular target will produce a correlation function very similar to that created by a matched circular filter (14). Therefore, it is clear that a filter bank can be reduced in size if this mismatch can be tolerated.

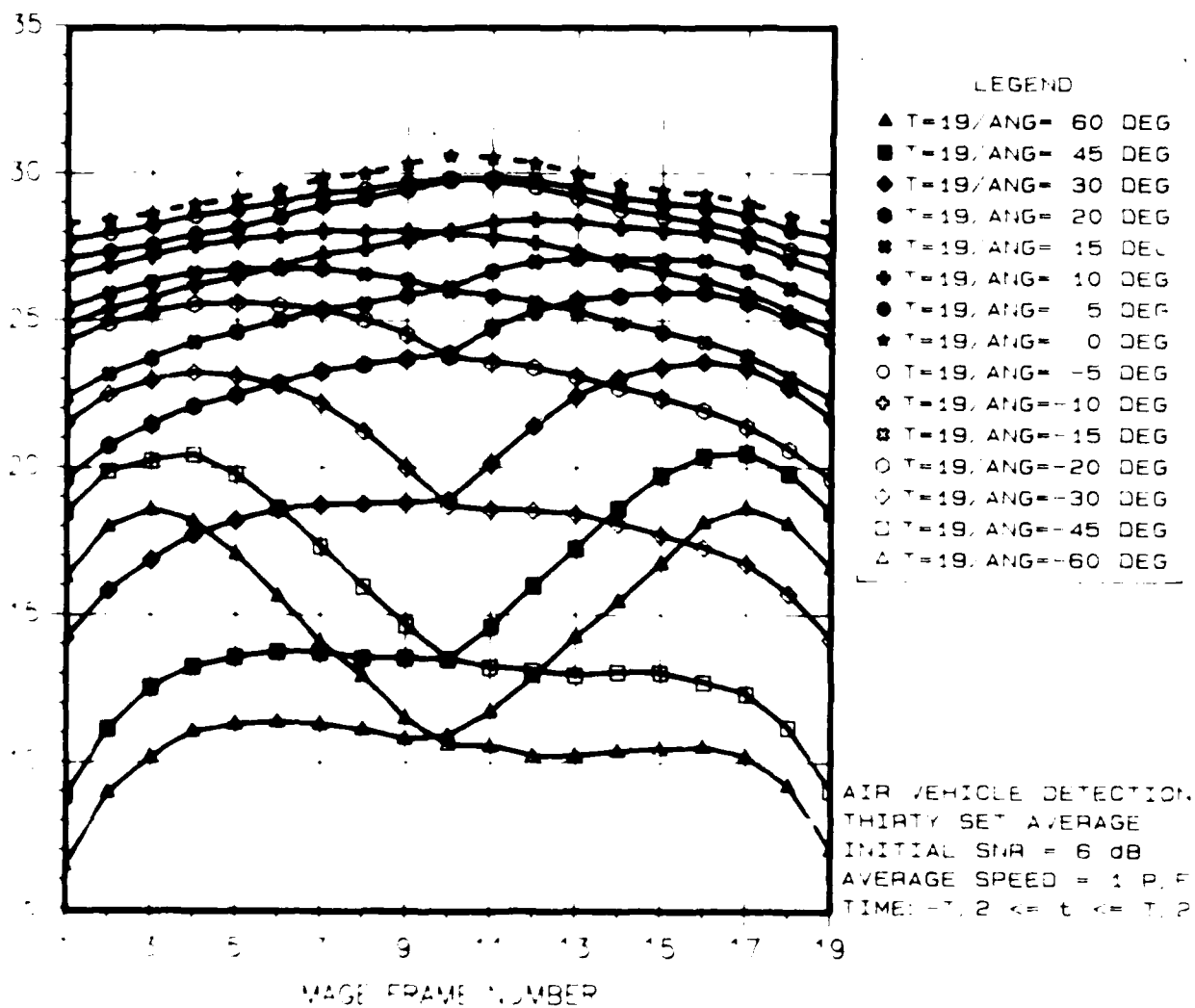


Figure 21. Measured signal to noise ratio for various track angle offsets as a function of image frame number.  $T_1 = 19$  and SNR = 6 dB

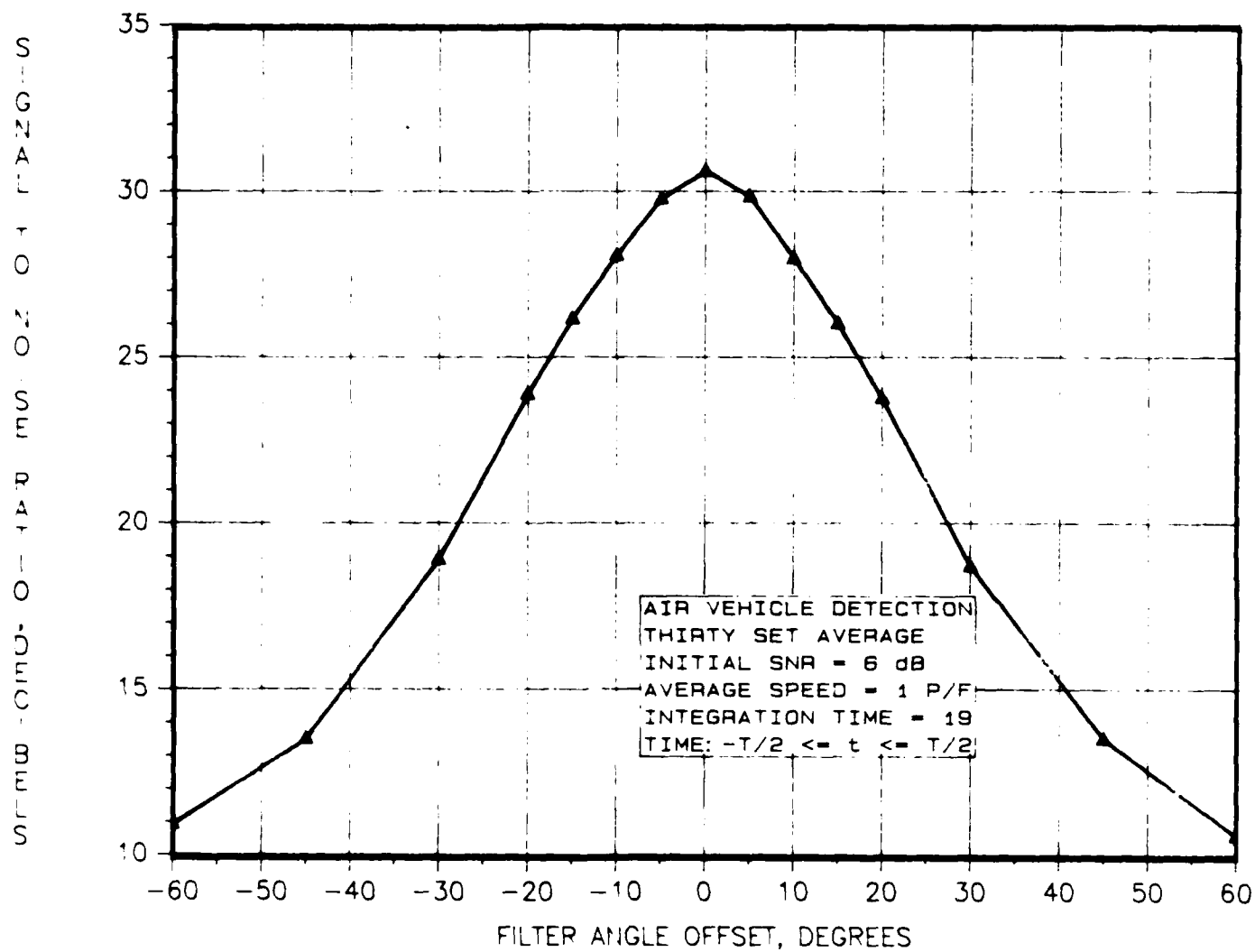


Figure 22. Measured signal-to-noise ratio at frame 10 for various track angle offsets:  $T_1 = 19$  and  $SNR_i = 6$  dB.

quite desirable from a data-processing point of view and will be investigated further. If true, this means that 3-D filtering for moving-target detection could be viewed as a coarse MTI approach and could hand off potential target information to other systems designed for finer target localization. Otherwise, a derivative matched filter must be used to enhance shape discrimination, assuming that the imagery is adequately sampled [14].

## 5.0 CONCLUSIONS

In this report, we have shown that the three-dimensional filtering techniques developed by Reed, et al. [12], can be easily modified to act as a space-shift, time-delay-and-integrate matched-filtering technique. Computer simulations verified the validity of this modification. The results demonstrate signal-to-noise ratio gains asymptotically growing by the filter integration time over those normally obtained by two-dimensional matched filtering of the individual frames in a sequence. The specific form of the output is ideally suited for MTI applications, or can be used in conjunction with some other target-speed and detection-localizing algorithm.



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## APPENDIX: DERIVATION OF OPTIMUM 3-D MATCHED FILTER FOR COLORED GAUSSIAN NOISE

Consider the remote sensing geometry illustrated in figure A-1. An optical imaging system is located a distance  $R$  above a natural terrain with temporal-spatial intensity distribution  $n_0(\underline{r};t)$ . The resultant imagery generated by this system is sampled by a high-density, high-speed photodiode array and stored in the form of quasicontinuous (both in space and time) image sequences. For incoherent background illumination, the stored intensity distribution  $n_0(\underline{r};t)$  can be shown to be given by

$$n_0(\underline{r};t) = \kappa \iint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(\underline{r} - \underline{r}')|^2 n'_0(\underline{r}';t) d^2r' \quad (\text{A-1})$$

where  $\kappa$  is a real constant [15]. In this equation,  $h(\underline{r})$  is the impulse response function of the optical imaging system under coherent light illumination. The magnitude squared of this function is called the point-spread function (abbreviated PSF), and is linked to the optical-transfer function (OTF) of the imaging system through the relation

$$\mathcal{H}(\underline{k}) = \frac{\iint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(\underline{r})|^2 \exp \{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r}\} d^2r}{\iint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(\underline{r}')|^2 d^2r'} \quad (\text{A-2})$$

If a target of interest moves through the imaged scene, its intensity distribution is also mapped onto the photodiode array. In particular, the target or signal intensity has the form

$$s(\underline{r};t) \approx \kappa \iint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(\underline{r} - \underline{r}')|^2 s'(\underline{r}';t) d^2r'$$

where  $s'$  and  $s$  are the intensity distributions of the moving target before and after sampling, respectively. For this discussion, let us assume that  $n_0$  and  $s$  are transferred into storage without any additional noise contamination. This implies that the two possible output image sequences are

$$y(\underline{r};t) = n_0(\underline{r};t) \quad (\text{A-3a})$$

and

$$y(\underline{r};t) = n_0(\underline{r};t) + s(\underline{r};t) \quad (\text{A-3b})$$

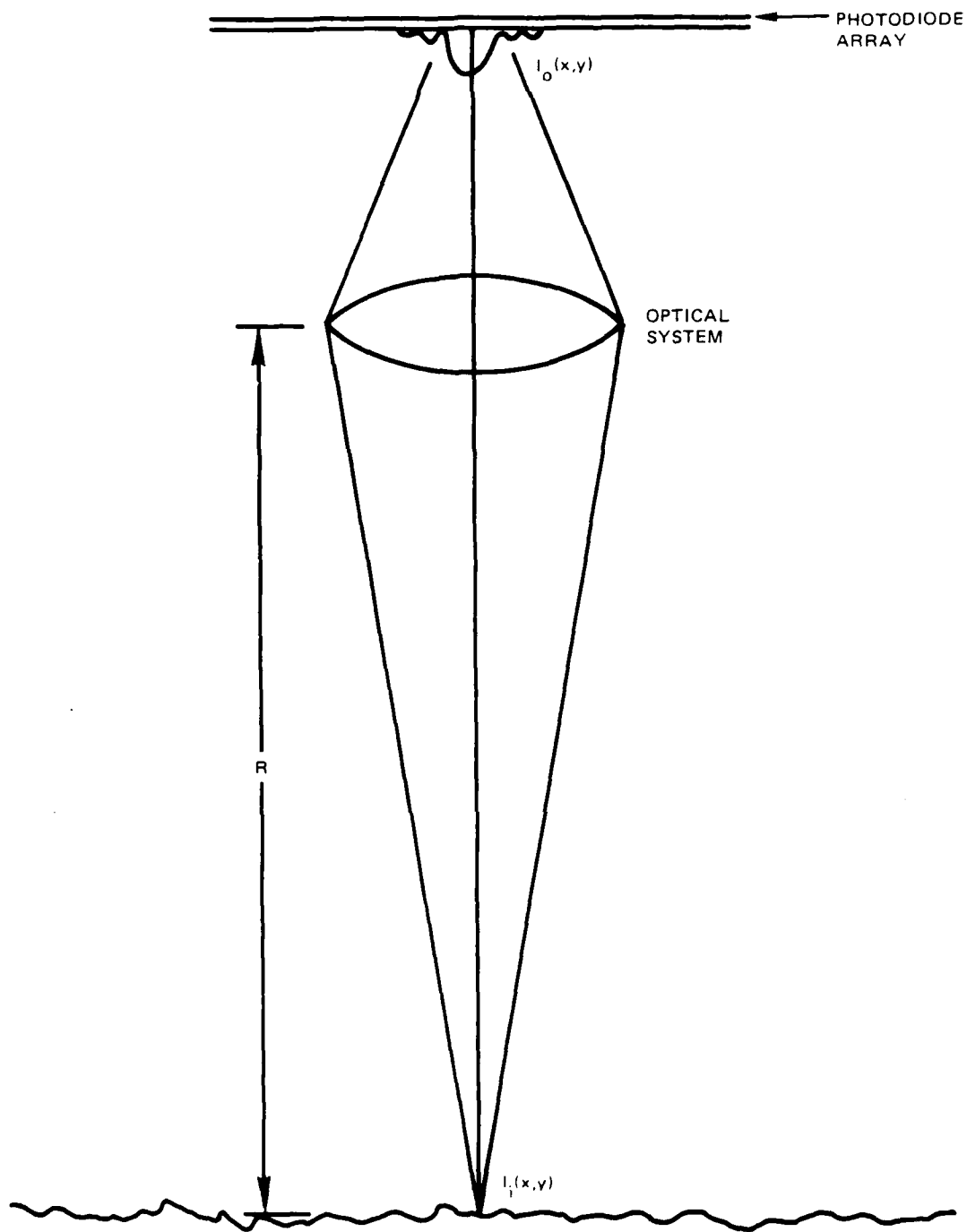


Figure A-1. Optical remote sensing geometry.

with the particular form of  $y(r;t)$  depending on whether the target is absent or present, respectively. It is apparent from equation A3-b that the assumed target of interest is transparent to the background illumination, is blurred to the point that this additive relation approximately holds, is small compared to the pixel area, or is contained in frame-to-frame difference data. Although these assumptions may not include all possible remote-sensing scenarios, the application of maximum-likelihood detection techniques to three-dimensional image processing may still prove useful in target-localization situations not covered by equation A-3b.

Given the above, Reed, et al. [12], developed the optimum three-dimensional match filter for moving-target detection shown in figure A-2, and which can be described as follows: The target of interest is specified to possess a spatial profile  $s_0(\underline{r})$  and a temporal intensity function  $a(t)$ . In addition, it traverses the imaged terrain at a velocity  $v$ . This gives a stored-target intensity distribution of the form



Figure A-2. 3-D matched-filter processing procedure.

$$s(\underline{r}; t) \approx \kappa a(t) \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(\underline{r} - \underline{r}')|^2 s_0(\underline{r}' - \underline{r}_0 - \underline{v}t) d^2r' \quad (\text{A-4})$$

with  $\underline{r}_0$  being the location of the target at  $t = 0$ . Fourier transforming equation A-4 yields

$$\begin{aligned}
 S(\underline{k}, \omega) &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(\underline{r}; t) \exp \{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - i\omega t\} d^2r dt \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} a(t) \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s_0(\underline{r}' - \underline{r}_0 - \underline{v}t) |h(\underline{r} - \underline{r}')|^2 \exp \{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - i\omega t\} d^2r' dt \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} a(t) s_0(\underline{r}'') \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(\underline{r} - \underline{r}'' - \underline{r}_0 - \underline{v}t)|^2 \exp \{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r}\} d^2r \exp \{-i\omega t\} d^2r'' dt \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} a(t) s_0(\underline{r}'') \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(\underline{r}''')|^2 \exp \{-i\underline{k} \cdot (\underline{r}''' + \underline{r}'' + \underline{r}_0 + \underline{v}t)\} d^2r''' \\
 &\quad \exp \{-i\omega t\} d^2r'' dt \\
 &= G(\underline{k}) \exp \{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r}_0\} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} a(t) s_0(\underline{r}'') \exp \{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r}'' - it(\omega + \underline{k} \cdot \underline{v})\} d^2r'' dt \\
 &= \exp \{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r}_0\} A(\omega + \underline{k} \cdot \underline{v}) S_0(\underline{k}) G(\underline{k}) \quad (\text{A-6})
 \end{aligned}$$

where

$$A(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} a(t) \exp(-i\omega t) dt \quad (\text{A-7})$$

$$S_0(\underline{k}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s_0(\underline{r}) \exp(-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r}) d^2r \quad (\text{A-8})$$

$$G(\underline{k}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(\underline{r})|^2 \exp(-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r}) d^2r \quad (\text{A-9})$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} G_0(\underline{k}' - \underline{k}) G_0^*(\underline{k}') d^2k' \quad (\text{A-10})$$

and

$$G_0(\underline{k}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(\underline{r}) \exp(-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r}) d^2r \quad (\text{A-11})$$

The noise in the received pictures is given by

$$n_0(\underline{r}; t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} n'_0(\underline{r} - \underline{r}'; t) |h(\underline{r}')|^2 d^2r' \quad (\text{A-12})$$

This implies that the autocorrelation function for the received clutter is equal to

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_0(\underline{r}; t) &= E[n_0(\underline{r}'; t') n_0(\underline{r} + \underline{r}'; t')] \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(\underline{r}'')|^2 E[n'_0(\underline{r}' - \underline{r}''; t') n'_0(\underline{r}' - \underline{r}'' + \underline{r}; t' + t)] |h(\underline{r}''')|^2 d^2r'' d^2r''' \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(\underline{r}'')|^2 E[n'_0(\underline{r}'; t') n'_0(\underline{r}' + \underline{r}'' + \underline{r} - \underline{r}'''; t' + t)] |h(\underline{r}''')|^2 d^2r'' d^2r''' \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(\underline{r}'')|^2 \phi'_0(\underline{r} + \underline{r}'' - \underline{r}'''; t) |h(\underline{r}''')|^2 d^2r'' d^2r''' \quad (\text{A-13}) \end{aligned}$$

with

$$\phi'_0(\underline{r}, t) = E \cdot n'_0(\underline{r}', t) \cdot n'_0(\underline{r}' + \underline{r}, t + t') \quad (A-14)$$

The power spectrum of the received clutter is then

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_0(\underline{k}; \omega) &= \int \int \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \phi_0(\underline{r}, t) \exp \{-i \underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - i \omega t\} d^2 r dt \\ &= \int \int \int \int \int \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(\underline{r}'')^2 \phi'_0(\underline{r} + \underline{r}'' - \underline{r}''', t) h(\underline{r}''')^2 \\ &\quad \exp \{-i \underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - i \omega t\} d^2 r'' d^2 r''' d^2 r dt \\ &= \Phi'_0(\underline{k}; \omega) \int \int \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(\underline{r}'')^2 h(\underline{r}''')^2 \exp \{-i \underline{k} \cdot (\underline{r}''' - \underline{r}'')\} d^2 r'' d^2 r''' \\ &= \Phi'_0(\underline{k}; \omega) G(\underline{k}) G(-\underline{k}) \\ &= \Phi'_0(\underline{k}; \omega) [G(\underline{k})]^2 \end{aligned} \quad (A-15)$$

where

$$\Phi'_0(\underline{k}; \omega) = \int \int \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \phi'_0(\underline{r}, t) \exp \{-i \underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - i \omega t\} d^2 r dt \quad (A-17)$$

and

$$G^*(\underline{k}) = G(-\underline{k}) \quad (A-18)$$

The optimum matched filter for optical target detection is easily shown to be

$$H(\underline{k}; \omega) = \frac{S^*(\underline{k}; \omega)}{\Phi_0(\underline{k}; \omega)} \quad (A-19)$$

by maximizing the received signal-to-noise ratio

$$SNR = \frac{(E[y(\underline{r}; t)])^2}{VAR[y(\underline{r}; t)]}$$

(5) chapter 19. Substituting equations A-6 and A-16 into equation A-19, the optimum three-dimensional matched filter for moving targets is thus

$$H(k, \omega) = \frac{A^*(\omega + k \cdot v) S_{ij}^*(k)}{\Phi_{ij}(k, \omega) C(k)} \quad (\text{A-20})$$

The term  $r_0$  in equation A-20 is set to zero so that the origin of the output plane becomes the point of no translational offset between the filtered and nonfiltered images.

END

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